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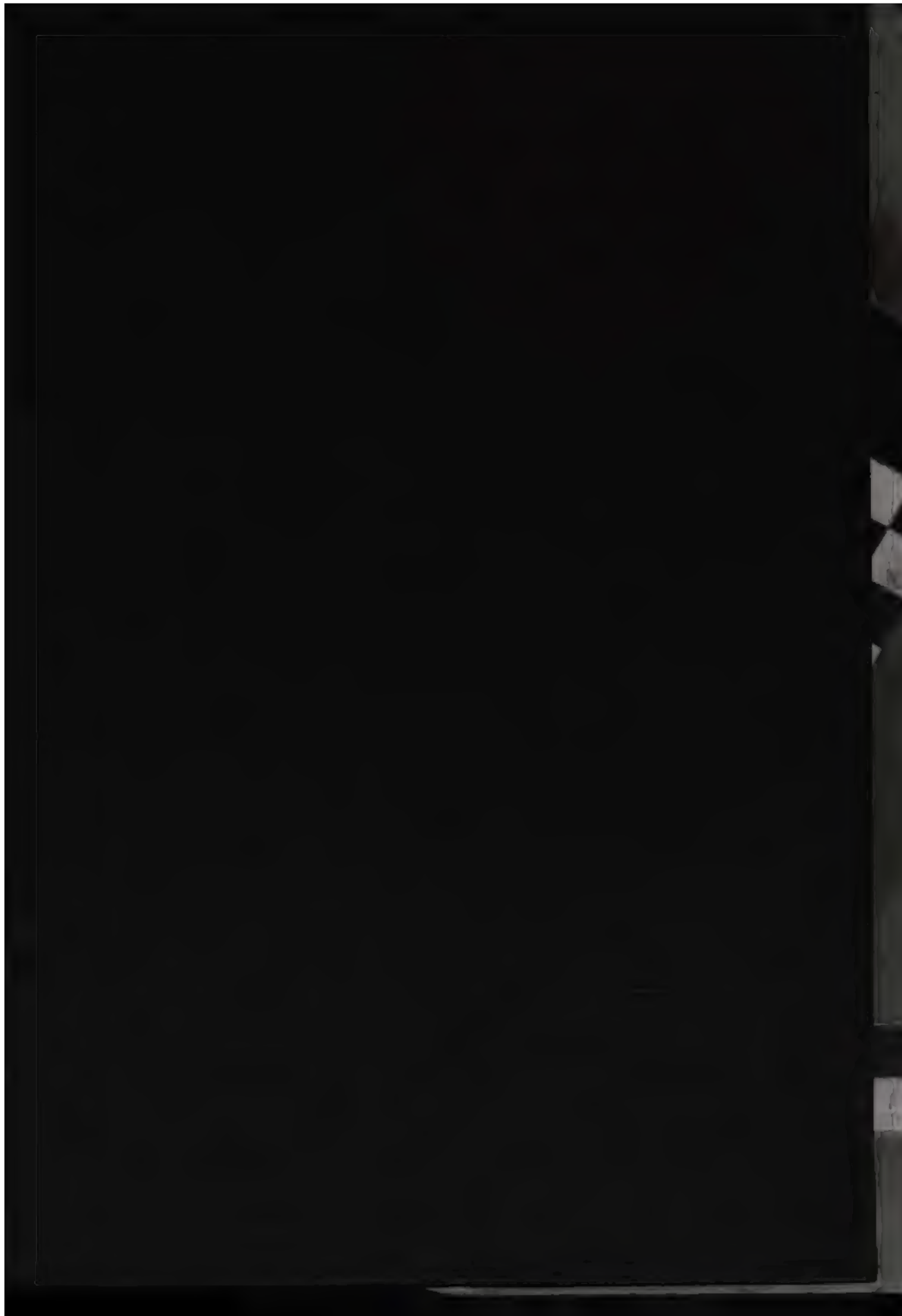
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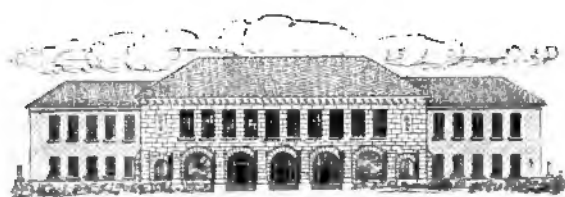
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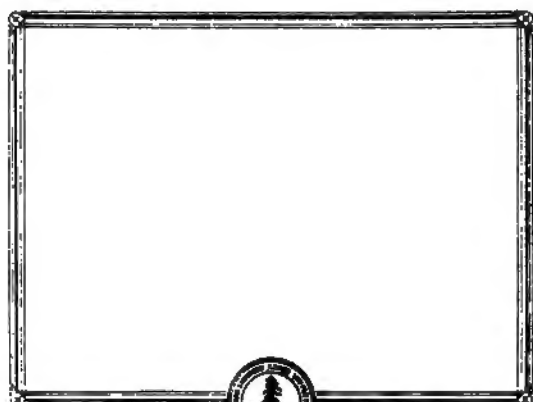
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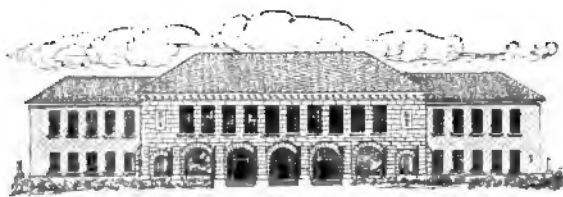




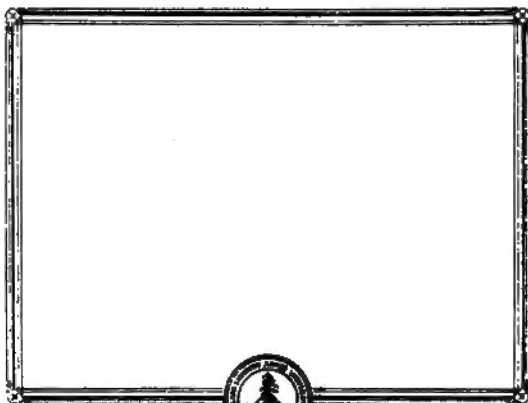
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University of the State of New York

Regents' Bulletin

No. 8 January 1893

29th University Convocation

OF THE

State of New York, July 8-10, 1891

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ALBANY  
UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK  
1893

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FRANK RICE, Secretary of State

JAMES F. CROOKER, Superintendent of Public Instruction

Ex officio

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ANSON J. UPSON, D. D., LL. D., 1874	-	-	-	-	-	GLENS FALLS
WILLIAM L. BOSTWICK, 1876	-	-	-	-	-	ITHACA
CHAUNCEY M. DEPEW, LL. D., 1877	-	-	-	-	-	NEW YORK
CHARLES E. FITCH, 1877	-	-	-	-	-	ROCHESTER
ORRIS H. WARREN, D. D., 1877	-	-	-	-	-	SYRACUSE
WHITELAW REID, LL. D., 1878	-	-	-	-	-	NEW YORK
WILLIAM H. WATSON, M. D., 1881	-	-	-	-	-	UTICA
HENRY E. TURNER, 1881	-	-	-	-	-	LOWVILLE
ST CLAIR MCKELWAY, LL. D., 1883	-	-	-	-	-	BROOKLYN
HAMILTON HARRIS, LL. D., 1885	-	-	-	-	-	ALBANY
DANIEL BEACH, LL. D., 1885	-	-	-	-	-	WATKINS
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CARROLL E. SMITH, 1888	-	-	-	-	-	SYRACUSE
PLINY T. SEXTON, 1890	-	-	-	-	-	PALMYRA
T. GUILFORD SMITH, C. E., M. A., 1890	-	-	-	-	-	BUFFALO
WILLIAM CROSWELL DOANE, D. D., LL. D., 1892	-	-	-	-	-	ALBANY

*Two vacancies*

MELVIL DEWEY, M. A., <i>Secretary</i>	-	-	-	-	-	ALBANY
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# Regents' Bulletin

No. 8 January 1893

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## 29th University Convocation

OF THE

State of New York, July 8-10, 1891.

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### PROGRAM

#### Wednesday morning, July 8

Convocation was called to order at 10 a. m. by Chancellor George William Curtis.

Welcome by the chancellor.

Report of the Convocation council by President D. J. Hill, chairman.

Report of committee on necrology, Principal O. D. Robinson of the Albany high school, chairman. Only name, position, age and date of death were read, the notices being printed in full in the proceedings.

Report of examinations council and committee representing colleges.

The university study of philosophy: paper by Prof. J. G. Schurman, dean of Susan Linn Sage School of Philosophy, Cornell university.

Discussion:

Prof. N. M. BUTLER, dean of School of Philosophy, Columbia college.

Prof. FRANK S. HOFFMAN, Union university.

Pres. G. STANLEY HALL, Clark university.

*Adjourned* 12.30 p. m.

Wednesday, July 8, 3 p. m.

**Physical education.** Hygiene in schools. Gymnasiums. Physical training. Pros and cons of college and school athletics. Shall college gymnastics be ranked as a study; if so, should it be as drill or recreation?

Athletics in women's schools and colleges; boating, tennis, cycling, riding, etc. Heavy gymnastics for girls.

Discussion opened by Dr Edward Hitchcock, director Amherst college gymnasium.

Relation of physical education to education in general.

Dr LUTHER GULICK, director physical department, Y. M. C. A.  
Training school, Springfield, Mass.

Athletics at Yale.

CHARLES F. KENT, Palmyra.

College athletics.

Pres. H. E. WEBSTER, Union university.

Gymnastic work at Smith college.

Miss ELIZABETH C. LAWRENCE, of Smith college alumnae  
gymnasium committee.

School athletics.

Prin. D. C. FARR, Glens Falls academy.

Prin. SOLOMON SIAS, Schoharie union school.

Kingston academy cadets.

Prin. H. W. CALLAHAN, Kingston academy.

General discussion:

Com'r W. T. HARRIS, U. S. Bureau of Education.

*Adjourned 5 p. m.*

---

Wednesday, 8 p. m.

. Annual address: Place of scientific and technical schools in the American system, by Pres. Francis A. Walker, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

University reception in state library 9-11 p. m.

**Thursday, July 9, 9.30 a. m.**

**Coordination of university, college and academy.** Discussion opened by ex-Pres. Andrew D. White, Cornell university; followed by representatives from colleges, public high schools, endowed academies and private fitting schools, and by general discussion.

Chanc. H: M. MACCRACKEN, University of the City of New York.

Prof. E. H. GRIFFIN, Johns Hopkins university.

Prof. F. H. STODDARD, University of the City of New York.

Prof. OREN ROOT, Hamilton college.

Prin. ROLAND S. KEYSER, Middleburg academy.

Prin. G: M. SMITH, Canton union school.

Prin. G: D. HALE, Hale's Classical and Scientific school, Rochester.

Prin. HARLAN T. AMEN, Riverview Military academy, Poughkeepsie.

Prin. C. T. R. SMITH, Lansingburg academy.

Prof. LEWIS BOSS, director Dudley observatory.

Prof. J. G. SCHURMAN, Cornell university.

Prof. MUNROE SMITH, Columbia college.

Prin. W. E. BUNTEN, Ulster academy.

Prin. H: P. WARREN, Albany academy.

Pres. G. STANLEY HALL, Clark university.

Pres. SETH LOW, Columbia college.

Pres. J. M. TAYLOR, Vassar college.

Sup't W: A. MAXWELL, Brooklyn.

**Three or four years for a college course?**

Prin. W. E. BUNTEN, Ulster academy.

Prin. J. ANTHONY BASSETT, Richfield Springs union school.

Sup't A. GAYLORD SLOCUM, Corning.

**Should degrees be given on completion of examinations, regardless of time of residence?**

Prof. A. B. KENYON, Alfred university.

*Adjourned 12.45 p. m.*

---

**Thursday, 3 p. m.**

**Higher education of women.** Coeducation, separate school or college, or annex?

Delegates are expected to speak for Vassar, Wellesley, Smith, Bryn Mawr (separate colleges); annexes of Harvard and Columbia colleges; Cornell and Syracuse universities (coeducational), and other institutions.

Pres. JAMES M. TAYLOR, Vassar college.

HAMILTON W. MABIE, trustee Barnard college.

Pres. CHARLES VAN NORDEN, Elmira college.

Prin. A. C. HILL, Cook academy.

Barnard college; a new phase of the annex.

Miss ELLA WEED, trustee Barnard college.

Coeducation at Cornell.

Prof. H. S. WHITE, dean Cornell university.

Relations of a coeducational institution to its women students.

Miss ALLA W. FOSTER, chairman A. C. A. committee on endowment of colleges.

Coeducation at Alfred; its intent and its results.

Prof. D. A. BLAKESLEE, Alfred university.

Coeducation in normal schools.

Miss MARY F. HYDE, N. Y. State Normal college.

Mission of the coeducational academy.

Prin. JOHN GREENE, Colgate academy.

Effect on health of higher education of women.

Miss FLORENCE M. CUSHING, trustee Vassar college.

Advantages of scientific training for women.

Prof. MARY W. WHITNEY, Vassar college.

Should instruction as to manners and dress be included in the curriculum?

Mrs WINIFRED EDGERTON MERRILL, ex-Pres. N. Y. branch of Ass'n of collegiate alumnæ.

*Adjourned 5 p. m.*

---

**Thursday evening, 7 p. m.**

Annual Convocation dinner, at Delavan house, with after dinner speeches strictly limited to five minutes.



**Friday, July 10, 9 a. m.**

**University extension.** Discussion opened by Prof. H. B. Adams, Johns Hopkins university; followed by

Pres. SETH LOW, Columbia college.

Sec'y GEORGE HENDERSON, American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, Philadelphia.

Regent T. GUILFORD SMITH, Buffalo.

Warden R. B. FAIRBAIRN, St Stephen's college.

Prof. BENJAMIN I. WHEELER, Cornell university.

Inspector FRANCIS J. CHENEY, Regents' office.

SIDNEY SHERWOOD, Johns Hopkins university.

Pres. H. E. WEBSTER, Union university.

Pres. G. STANLEY HALL, Clark university.

University extension and the Brooklyn Institute.

Prof. FRANKLIN W. HOOPER.

University extension in medicine.

W. A. PURRINGTON, New York.

Uses of secondary schools in university extension.

Col. C. J. WRIGHT, Prin. N. Y. Military academy.

General discussion :

Ex-Pres. ANDREW D. WHITE, Cornell university.

Prof. J. SCOTT CLARK, Syracuse university.

Ass't Sup't H: M. LEIPZIGER, New York.

Regent PLINY T. SEXTON, Palmyra.

Prof. ALLAN MARQUAND, Princeton college.

Pres. W: C. ROBERTS, Lake Forest university, Ill.

Awarding of university extension prize of \$100.

Ballot for Convocation and examinations councils and appointment of committees.

Closing of Convocation.

*Adjourned sine die 1.30 p. m.*

**PAPERS AND PROCEEDINGS****Wednesday morning, July 8****ADDRESS OF WELCOME****BY CHANCELLOR GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS**

There is no pleasanter duty attached to the office of chancellor of the University than that of welcoming this academic congress to its annual session. In this stately and splendid chamber of legislative deliberation there are many great questions discussed, yet no question of greater importance is presented here during the winter than that which engages your attention; and if those discussions in the chamber are conducted with half the practical knowledge and intelligence and something of the high spirit and aim of those that mark the deliberations of Convocation, the state is very heartily to be congratulated.

I have been in many great assemblies of which it was subsequently stated that at least one or two or three or even five hundred millions of dollars were represented in the assembly. I am not perfectly sure that there are many millions of dollars represented in this assembly, and yet I am very confident that the influence which is certainly among the most prominent and the most profound in molding the character of the state is here at this moment amply represented. In welcoming you I welcome those who perhaps more than any other class, certainly as much as any other class, do really mold the state of New York.

The school, whether of the primary or of the secondary character, as we term it, is the arena in which the American citizen is trained. New York says with the old Dutch province of Zeeland, "Education is the corner-stone of the commonwealth." And if this state regards with peculiar interest and pride the legislators who usually assemble in this chamber, with what feeling should she not regard your deliberations, which are largely directed to the question how best to make those legislators. When the Yankee said to the acute European that the school in this country was the workshop in which the citizens were produced, the acute European replied to him, "And how do you train the workmen who turn out the products of that shop." This of course is one of the questions which must largely engage your attention at this time. It is how we are to make the

teachers, how we are to raise the standards of education ; how above all things, if you will allow me, we are to impress upon the people in this state, as the result of your deliberations, that education is not to be valued chiefly as a material advantage, but as a spiritual force. It is as gross a wrong, believe me, to represent education as merely the means of securing material success as it is to describe beauty as merely giving pleasure to the eye. Doubtless education is the minister of what we usually call success; doubtless beauty everywhere is pleasing to the eye; but the final end of education as of beauty is the enlargement of the mental horizon, the strengthening of the mental powers, and more than all, the quickening of the spiritual life.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, we are accustomed to say that we are charged in this Convocation with the interests of higher education in the state of New York. I think there is possibly some misapprehension in the use of that phrase. We speak in current terms of primary and secondary education. Those are convenient expressions and define the limit that we think may properly be set to that degree and kind of instruction which the state may furnish. It draws the line between what are popularly and generally considered the two departments, but remember that it is a question of degree, not of kind. Higher education is not a different education, it is only more education. The poet Pope, you remember, sneered at a little learning as a dangerous thing. But at the very moment when Pope was using those words, the profoundest mathematical scholar of his age, with the sublime modesty of greatness, was saying, and his words are a curious comment upon the poets' sneer, "I do not know how I may appear to the world, but I seem to myself to be only like a child playing upon the seashore, diverting myself with finding now a smooother pebble, now a prettier shell, while the great ocean of truth lies all undiscovered before me." In those words of Newton do we not hear something of an echo of the words of the apostle, "I count not myself to have attained"?

All our scholarship, all our learning, all the attainments of education are but comparative. It is a ladder let down from Heaven. Men and women are ascending at different points. No one is absolutely first, no one is utterly last.

I welcome you then, teachers of New York, I welcome you to this most important meeting, citizens of a great state. Let us determine that the rule of our deliberations, that the rule of our conduct shall be described in the legend of New York, and that as we are here in

a state great in territorial extent, greatest in population, greatest in resources, so we who bear the banner of what certainly is not the least of its great interests, are resolved that we will step only to the music of that legend, and raise the standard of that commonwealth "Excelsior."

### COMMITTEE REPORTS

**Convocation council.** Pres. D: J. Hill, chairman, reported as follows:

It is only just to say in presenting the report of the Convocation council that the work of conceiving and formulating the program which is now put into your hands is very largely, almost entirely, the work of the secretary of the University. We wish before presenting the program to the Convocation, to enforce, if any enforcement is possible after the persuasive words which have been uttered by the chancellor, the recommendation that every speaker confine himself to the time set by the rules of Convocation; and we are most happy to know that the chancellor, in his gentle and gracious manner, will refresh your memories if any one is disposed to overstep the boundaries of these rules.

It has been intimated that we have a large array of ability for the discussion of questions on the program. The committee has thought it wise to depart from the time honored custom of using our home talent almost solely, and to invite from beyond the borders of the Empire state, men distinguished in many departments of knowledge. This is an additional reason why the speaking should be crisp, brief, and within the limits set.

The committee feels that it has been very generous, and very just also, in the range of topics that have been recommended for discussion. They touch every department of higher education. We begin with the discussion of the "University study of philosophy," and the list of names that we have presented here promises us a very full morning without the additional topics that have been suggested. You will notice on the fourth page of the program several questions beginning with the one "Should Convocation be changed to a winter month?" It is probably not desirable to discuss all these questions; but they are placed here in order to give you an opportunity, if you wish to discuss them. If we get to them, we shall consider only those which the Convocation votes to discuss. *Adopted.*

**Necrology committee.** Prin. O. D. Robinson, chairman, read

in abstract the report (printed in full in memoirs), which was adopted by a rising vote.

**Examinations committee.** Prin. D. C. Farr reported as follows:

The report of your committee is necessarily a very brief one, the results of its work being contained in the pamphlet which has already reached you. The committee has had two sessions, one in the regents' office early in August lasting two days — and we did not limit ourselves to eight hours either — and another at Syracuse in December. The questions that chiefly interested the members and to which they gave their consideration were the courses of study and the number of examinations. On inquiry of all the principals of the schools, we found that three fourths of them agreed in preferring three examinations. In all our relations with the officers of the regents, our suggestions have been very kindly and very courteously received.

We do not want you to understand that the results of the syllabus are largely due to the deliberations of this committee; we want you to give credit to whom credit is due. The long friend and faithful servant of the cause of education in this state, Dr Watkins, is largely responsible for the good things which that pamphlet contains, and we sincerely hope that he will have a safe return to us and that his work will be largely instrumental in the future, as it has been in the past, in promoting the interests of higher education in this state.

There are many things perhaps in this syllabus with which you do not agree; but on the whole, so far as we have been able to learn, the teachers are exceedingly well satisfied with the results that have been tabulated and which are before you, and which probably will be changed as advancing needs require. *Adopted.*

**Committee representing colleges.** Pres. H. E. Webster reported as follows:

A few moments ago Secretary Dewey asked me to report for this committee, Pres. Adams of Cornell, who was chairman, being absent from the country.

As I had not anticipated making this report, I have not written it out and can only make a brief statement. As you know, this committee was appointed last summer at Convocation. It has met from time to time in the office of the University as was agreed. We made a report which will be published and distributed, I under-

stand. If it has not already been done I will only say that your committee met at the joint hearing of the legislature and discussed the matter of university extension with them. I think all the committees were in favor of the scheme so far as it was outlined at the time, and in favor also of the appropriation which has since been obtained.

A great many other matters were brought before the committee: and I am glad to say that these matters were fairly discussed and that in every instance we arrived at an entirely unanimous decision in regard to them. These points will also be more fully explained hereafter. Further than this it seems unnecessary to go: for it would be quite impossible to make a full report in the five or ten minutes allowed, and in any case it is quite impossible for me to do it. *Adopted.*

## UNIVERSITY STUDY OF PHILOSOPHY

### Discussion

OPENED BY PROF. J. G. MCNEWMAN, DEAN OF JERAM LESTER SAGE SCHOOL OF PHILOSOPHY,  
CORNELL UNIVERSITY

I do not intend to trouble you with a long paper or indeed with any paper at all. Whether it is in my power to live up to your program and give you a "short, crisp speech" will be in your equity to judge. I thought at any rate I could describe in this fashion better than by a written paper what I had in mind to say. The subject we are considering was suggested by the great amount of money that has been given within the last year for the promotion of philosophical study in this state. At Cornell university we have been able to appropriate a sum not far from \$25,000 a year to the study of philosophy; and here comes the inquiry, what use we are to make of such a sum of money?

In the old college courses we were taught logic and mental and moral philosophy, and we all carried away the impression, I think, that these sciences were not progressive sciences, but had been settled once for all, and were to be handed down to the next generation unchanged. But a change has taken place in our conception of philosophy. If I may refer to the old Greek conception, it was that philosophy constituted a science or a method of investigation or inquiry independent altogether of other sciences, and that by means of some faculty which the philosopher possessed it was in his power



to discover truths about the nature of things hidden to other investigators. The vocation of the philosopher was regarded as the highest thing on earth. The sciences according to the Greek conception were subordinate to philosophy. Now in modern times we have changed that and at the present day the sciences are regarded as the foundation of philosophy. With this changed conception of the relation of the sciences to philosophy there is also growing up a broader philosophy, and if you will allow me I will mention some of its branches and describe very briefly what I think may be done for them.

First of all we have the old discipline of logic. When Kant attempted to construct a critical system of philosophy he based it on logic which he declared had been a perfect science for 2,000 years. No doubt, in so far as we mean by logic, merely the art of drawing certain conclusions from certain premises already laid down, its canons are to-day what Aristotle first discovered them to be. On the other hand, if we raise the new inquiry, How then are these premises reached from which conclusions are drawn? we shall find in the writings of Aristotle next to nothing to help us to an answer. The first work that attempted to answer the question was the *Logic* of John Stuart Mill. Mill formulated the logic of induction, or in other words the principles and methods which are to be followed by scientists in the investigation of nature, if their results are to be valid results. But his work was only a beginning; and the logic of the sciences can never be completed so long as human knowledge continues to expand. Here then, as it seems to me, is a field which may be very successfully prescribed for university students. What methods must be followed in the various sciences if the results which are reached are to pass as valid results? I think one of the best ways to answer the question would be to get the professors of mathematics, physics, biology, chemistry and the historical sciences to come before philosophical classes and explain to them, each for himself, the method followed in the sciences they represent. Here then is a large field for investigation in philosophy.

When we turn to psychology we also find abundant room for investigators. No branch of human knowledge has made greater progress in recent years. A new method has been introduced. The old method was the introspective one. It was supposed that the science of mind should be built up by the investigator looking into his own consciousness and tabulating what went on. This subjective method, however, has in recent times been supplemented by an objective

or experimental method, and we now draw from altogether new sources facts for building up the science of psychology. We are thus reaching quantitative results regarding the intensity, character, and time-order of mental phenomena in the individual; and we study these phenomena in all manifestations of mind, normal and diseased, and in such mental deposits as language, religion, law, custom, etc. While in a college course it seems to me desirable that there should be presented to the student who is required to take the study, a more or less connected view of facts which are universally recognized in the science of psychology, the university teacher of philosophy should familiarize his advanced students with the new methods of investigation and turn them into fields of inquiry with a view to their enlargement of the boundaries of the science.

When I pass from psychology to ethics I think I may say there has been the same change of method and the same fruitfulness of results. In the older text-books there were two to three fundamental questions, such as the end of life and the moral law, but later inquirers have come to feel that these great questions can not be settled satisfactorily until the investigator is in possession of a much larger collection of facts than have hitherto been gathered. I can not, ladies and gentlemen, give you my own view of this question better than by describing a course of ethics to my own students in Cornell university. It was a course of three hours a week running through the entire year. During the first term or about one third of the year I devoted the entire time to the collection of facts bearing on the moral consciousness of mankind. I asked my students to read the Old Testament, especially the earlier books, in order that they might get a view of the moral sentiments, beliefs and practices of one very important branch of the human family. I described in lectures the moral ideals, institutions and practices of other peoples — of savages, old Aryans, Greeks, Romans, and Christians. Having in that way spread before my students a picture of the moral facts of mankind as they are represented in the literary remains of the great nations of the world and in the existing customs of lower races, I then attempted to make an analysis of the individual moral sentiments and beliefs of the American of the 19th century. Then when the facts on which the science of ethics is to be built up were completely before us, I proceeded in the second term, or the second third of the year, to the erection of a theory of ethics; in other words, I endeavored to discover whether, when we surveyed these facts through and through, there were any general and universal

principles of conduct and, if so, to tabulate them. In the third term I made an application of these principles of morality to actual life. I examined by the criterion discovered, the moral life of the individual, of the family, and of society, as we are acquainted with them in modern times. Now this sketch opens up, you see, a field of inquiry which might occupy the time of one investigator for a great number of years; and I found as I went into my course with more detail, as I endeavor to do from year to year, that it takes so much of my time that I have scarcely any time for other branches of philosophy. I hold then that even if we have large sums of money given for the prosecution of philosophical study, we have in these sciences I have already mentioned,—in logic, in ethics, in psychology, an abundant field worthy to be cultivated by the best investigators money can procure us.

There remains, however, another branch of philosophy, a branch of philosophy which endeavors to give us a conception of the world and of human life which will satisfy at once the demands of the understanding and so far as possible the needs of the heart. There are a great many people at the present day who deny the possibility of such a science. I am not here either to vindicate or to condemn it. What I want to say is that for hundreds or even thousands of years the best intellects of the race have struggled with these ultimate problems of the nature of man and of the world and of the relation of both to God. It seems to me, therefore, whether we believe in the science of metaphysics or not, we should recognize that it is worth while to study, at least historically, the great answers that have been given from the time of Plato and Aristotle to these questions of ultimate existence. I hold, therefore, that in a university school of philosophy, provision, and I am prepared to say liberal provision, should be made for at least the historical study of metaphysics. I need not in this audience dwell upon the advantages of such a study. For my own part I should be disposed to go a little further and say that I think we should have a chair of constructive metaphysics; that we should not content ourselves merely with the answers that have been given in the past to those ultimate questions I have described, but should ourselves attempt in the light of existing knowledge to form some intelligible theory of the ultimate nature of things. If I have any doubt about the possibility of a final theory of things it is only because I realize that the perfect metaphysician should be, if not omniscient, at least a master of every science — a microcosm of all human intelligence.

I trust I have now made clear the kind of work that, in my opinion, should be undertaken by a well equipped university school of philosophy, though for the sake of brevity, I have mentioned only its principal divisions.

**Prof. N: M. Butler** — Columbia college has by statutory act been reorganized on the basis of a university. Students enter the university course at the close of the third or old junior year of the college curriculum. The university organism is divided into four faculties of which the faculty of philosophy is one. Students entering the department of philosophy, either from our own or from other institutions, have been presumably instructed in the elements of philosophy and of ethics.

Our university study of philosophy being pursued along four popular lines, it is of course all voluntary and all elective; and although it presents to ourselves an organic whole, it is not such an organic whole if the student elects certain portions of the subjects treated. We proceed along these lines to discuss philosophy. In the history of philosophy we proceed along the elective lecture method, supplementing by two years of instruction by the discursive method. We think there should be cooperation between the teacher and the student and that by working inductively along these lines that the greatest progress is made and that the spirit of research is most fostered. We follow these new problems in logic and in ethics and in other departments of philosophy upon the broad plane of the theory of knowledge; and therefore we keep in mind, throughout, the fact that it is a problem of the theory of knowledge. How can man know anything? How can man's mind gather to itself the facts offered?

We also include in this division a university course in pedagogics. I agree entirely with the idea Prof. Schurman has expressed. We follow all philosophical studies for a practical end. A very important and very real application is found when one formulates the details of individual opinion, his researches, his ethical and philosophical opinions, his opinions gained by contact with others in daily life. We believe that a scientific study of the facts of education contributes very largely to that end as a philosophical discipline. Therefore we start from the theory of knowledge and endeavor to bear in mind that we are proceeding to a practical end.

One word on the question of metaphysics. We study metaphysics and the metaphysical problems historically, and we do so for a defi-

nite and intelligent reason. Every man is a born metaphysician. Mr Johnson has defined metaphysics as an unusually stubborn effort to think clearly. The sole purpose of the study of metaphysics is to make the conception of mind as intelligent as possible and to make it rest on a real basis.

While this department has not been organized many years, we feel that it has been and is reasonably successful.

**Prof. F. S. Hoffman** — The first two or three weeks in philosophy are of the greatest moment. I tell my classes at the outset that there will be no recitations. I give them eight or nine topics which they can treat as they please for two weeks. Then they are rigidly examined on those topics before proceeding further. The teacher is there, not to tell them how much he knows about philosophy, but to help them to philosophize. They are to do the talking because they are to do the thinking. Each day an hour is devoted to the discussion of the topics. At the close of the discussion, the teacher gives them his opinion, if they desire it. I advise teachers of philosophy not to write a text-book to be used in their own classes. If the men know what a teacher's views are before the discussion, they will lose their interest in it. Neither should teachers of philosophy adopt any one's method, but take suggestions from all and then adopt their own method. They should put their whole soul into their philosophy, to live by it and help their students do so. Almost anybody can be interested in philosophy, I think, if these rules are followed.

**Pres. G. Stanley Hall**, *Clark university* — I have taught these subjects for 15 years, during which time I have had occasion to change my methods several times and I think I shall have no difficulty in summing up in 15 minutes on broad lines the conclusions I feel a fair degree of certainty about. In the first place I think we should distinguish at the outset between the college study and the university study of philosophy. The college study I think should include logic, ethics, psychology, with something of the history of philosophy; and if I were to act on my personal convictions, I should place ethics first, logic next, psychology next, leaving a little history of philosophy to go into the senior year. I believe that these subjects are of such fundamental importance in the shaping of character, conduct and mental work that they should be the required subjects in all college courses. If it come to this, I would even

sacrifice English rather than any of them. Every young bachelor should have at least a rudimentary knowledge of these four fundamental philosophical disciplines.

Ethics in an undergraduate course I believe should be a very simple, direct personal matter. I think it should begin with personal hygiene, the method of getting lessons, the method of sleep, the regulation of exercise and athletics. All these matters are matters of personal ethics, they are matters of body-keeping, and the young man should be impressed with the old Latin motto that to be well and strong is the best ethics. I think also the rudiments of association ethics should be taught. This, too, is a vast field, but here as in all these subjects, the qualification of the teacher should be restraint. Do not go into those things which are less well known, do not make it an arena for discussion.

In logic I think even the logical nomenclature is important. This I have always found of great interest to young men and of great value.

In the history of philosophy I should teach the older philosophical ideas, then the modern philosophy, taking care to avoid as far as possible in an undergraduate course all questions about the ulterior question of life. I have great sympathy with the sentiment of the average trustee and the average college president that there has been too much of these things for the average undergraduate; for I have seen too many young men who have been weakened by attempting to bite off more than they could chew. I would keep the university out of the college, and I should be specially careful not to teach the history of philosophy in such a way as to teach young men to hold no opinions.

As to the university instruction in philosophy, here I agree in the main with all Prof. Schurman has said. Logic is an important discipline, but I do not know half a dozen professors of logic in the world to-day. It has an advantage in that it has a very good textbook.

I think you will find as a general rule that the best discoverers, the best investigators, are not able to tell you how they do their work. They can not give you a receipt any more than a poet can give you the receipt by which he writes his poem. In science the great advances have been made along certain lines and by specialists in those lines. In our university we have succeeded, out of five who were asked, in getting one of the younger men to consent to give us a course of six lectures in logic. He wanted to make it



three, then four, but at last consented to give us six next year. I was not able to threaten or coax any of the other four.

As to ethics in its higher ranges, here we come into very close quarters, as Prof. Schurman has well said, with the history of custom and belief in the family and association life. Ethics is a vast field. What is there that has not an ethical side? Ethics in general it seems to me is the net aggregate result of all men's knowledge, and the man who can accomplish that whole field does a vast thing. Anyone who can make in a single life any valuable additions to this vast net result of all men's knowledge is doing a magnificent thing. It seems to me that the advances which have been made in ethics within recent years have been either theoretical or else they have been in the general fields of history of custom and belief which might perhaps as well be called a branch of anthropology as ethics.

As to the history of philosophy, here I think we have great and peculiar dangers. First there is the danger that the teacher of the history of philosophy may become a mere philosophizer, who will try to make Kant consistent perhaps with himself. That I do not think any one can do. It is the work in this direction that the advanced school has been called on to do. I believe it is just as vicious as it is to treat sacred writings in this minute, painful and exceedingly injurious way. Philosophy is an advantage in every life. It should be treated in all its breadth and brought home to life. Plato I am sure did all he could to bring home to the students a feeling sense of the mystery which philosophy had for him without any of its incumbrances; that he would teach it as curious rather than as technical, in a way which would make life richer and be more helpful.

The next danger is the dogmatic danger; the danger which springs from schools. It seems to me that the moment we begin to speak of the Kant school and the Hegel school, we are in the field of dogma and not in the field of ethics. The very term signifies the love of wisdom rather than its possession. I think that the day and the method of schools in philosophy are practically past, and this danger is over I hope in this country.

The next danger in the history of philosophy seems to be the introspection danger, and here I am very sorry I must take issue with my friend Prof. Butler. I should deprecate making the theory of knowledge the basis of anything under heaven.

I have been deeply pained to see in how many cases this introspection has led to morbid consequences. I think it is a very dan-

gerous thing to lay much stress on introspection. Who of the great psychologists could tell you how he did his work? It is impossible, and that is why a method in teaching that requires a pupil to turn about and tell how he did a thing is simply vicious. It is pulling up plants to see how they grow. It may have been a good thing for Kant to take up Aristotle's problem and to condense in a very careful treatise the results of his work, but I should like to know how much has come out of these methods.

The experimental method of psychology is somewhat new but it has made great progress. I think it may be divided into two fields: first the anthropological, and next the scientific part. A large portion of truth is unexplainable in method and therefore I think it is a very good exercise to send pupils into the fields and let them study the facts of the forest and know how the savage people live. There the conditions of life are reduced to the simplest forms.

I have great sympathy with the attempt to entice every teacher to analyze largely, because it draws the teacher's attention from the scholar in general to the individual child. Result, the scientific study of psychology.

There are morbid features cropping out when we are fatigued and the study of morbid psychology is very good to begin with, because certain mental features are magnified and stand out more clearly. I take my class to the insane asylum in order that they may have an illustration. I believe that psychology and ethics can be best interpreted through the study of customs, just as we study the methods. But in psychology we must carry on research. We must specialize here. There is as large a field of general agreement as in physics and chemistry, where each man recognizes the work of the other. The consensus of opinion on education is that great changes and advances have been made, and this by the psychological method and that from this education has received most of its valuable contributions.

**Prof. J. G. Schurman** — I am anxious to bring out one point which may perhaps have been overlooked. There is a large consensus of opinion that the philosophical sciences should be cultivated at the present day, and cultivated in a manner in which we all agree. We all agree, for instance, about the importance of psychology and the methods to be used; and although much has not been said of ethics, I think that both the last two speakers, I am certain that Pres. Hall, agree with me. We differ only as regards what some of us have called metaphysics and others have called the theory of

knowledge. Pres. Hall has come before us as the apostle of anti-metaphysical positivism and specialization, and he thinks it is lamentable that our young men should sometimes, like Descartes, find all their moorings adrift. He says that we have agreed in modern times that education is important. I believe for my part that there is no aspect of the highest education which is more important than that a man once in his life should lose all his moorings and should be obliged to think out questions for himself. But I do not want to make this Convocation an arena.

I am anxious that the points of agreement should be brought out, and I repeat that we are in substantial accord on everything except in our attitude to metaphysics. Let me again describe mine: I hold that metaphysics is the science or discipline by means of which we reach some ultimate conception of nature and life which shall satisfy the demands of the understanding and so far as possible the needs of the heart. Such a discipline is to be built upon the basis of the various sciences. The facts of the material world are reduced to one or two ultimate conceptions. Ultimately we explain the material world by atoms moving in accordance with the laws of dynamics. Suppose now that the ultimate conceptions of chemistry, of biology, of psychology and of all the historical sciences have been tabulated, and if you like analyzed and critically examined. Then all I ask is that the metaphysician, with due consciousness of the magnitude of the problem before him, with a strong conviction of the merely probable character of his results, shall nevertheless be allowed to build up on this edifice a theory of the whole realm of existence. I only ask that the scientific instinct which Pres. Hall recognizes when it appears within limited spheres, as for instance, physics, chemistry, or biology, shall not be checked when it operates on the common basis supplied by all the sciences. The work is no doubt vast and comprehensive. The one man competent to do it does not exist. The nearest approach to such a man is the one who possesses all the knowledge and sciences of the day. Even with such limitations as are inevitable in this age of specialization, I do not despair either of the possibility or of the value of a more or less perfect synthesis of the results of all the sciences; and such a synthesis is what we call a metaphysical system. You may say it is a fruitless endeavor, you may say it is not worth while frittering away your time at it, but all the same it is just this problem which the greatest minds of the race have considered and will continue to consider of the greatest importance.

Wednesday afternoon, July 8

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

TRAINING OF THE WHOLE INDIVIDUAL

**Dr Edward Hitchcock, director of Amherst college gymnasium—** Doubtless the speaker would not be standing here this afternoon were it not for the secretary of this Convocation: I mean Mr Dewey. We are proud that some of us had a hand in putting him through a course of education, and now we see he can turn the tables and put us through something else. You know as we grow older we are glad to submit to the younger people.

Allow a few words this afternoon upon *the training of the whole individual*, in our system of education, I mean the total man or woman. It certainly is conceded by all that we are made of body, soul, and spirit, three parts; and the plea I would make, is, that all these parts be attended to, no one part more unduly than another. This statement is older than we are, but at the same time old truths need to be reenforced and stated afresh. The old idea, as many of us remember, is that the scholar must be a lean, pale, lank fellow, rather dignified, pretty solemn, very little abdomen, and a good deal of head. I leave it to this audience to decide whether these are the characteristics we want to-day. We do want, it is true, as much, perhaps more, training of the head and heart, but we want more of the physical. Every advance in science, every bit of talk, every bit of discipline that we have gained shows that we must harmonize these three elements of our nature. A big over-developed physique is not our model for a man; the lean puny fellow is not our pattern. We want the all-round man; the fire, the boiler, and the engine. The engine is well enough; but what is it all good for without steam. Steam is all right but what if we haven't the fire to make the steam? We want the rightly equalized three parts as the good Lord intended there should be. Look at Mr Beecher. He had a good physique, but he was not less of a spiritual man because he had this physique.

We have seen in yesterday's paper that Sup't Jasper of New York city is going to try physical education as a department in five of his city schools. This seems a step in the right direction. And Pres. Ballantine, in his inaugural address at Oberlin college a few days ago, in outlining his proposed methods, spoke of athletics as one of them and, will you believe it? he spoke of athletics first. Is not

this little fact symptomatic of the groaning of the world for more health and vigor of body? Do we not want a body developed and trained before we put much intellectual furniture into it? "Howbeit that was not first which is spiritual, but which is natural."

We have found at Amherst college that the physical man wants proper attention, and so we provide a gymnasium, or as its donor, Mr C. M. Pratt of Brooklyn, thought of calling it, a health building. In this building during the cold and unpropitious weather of the year, we require regular physical exercise, in the same proportion as we require, in their appropriate places, the literary and scientific exercise of the intellect.

The point seems settled that physical exercise rightly and judiciously handled can be required of the student as profitably as can any other college work. This idea should reach down to the common school. A mistake it is true will be made if the public schools should try to do as much in the line of competitive sports as college students do, but they may open in that direction.

You ask about systems. I do not believe we have an American system of gymnastics. We are not wrought up to this yet. We are working in that direction. We want something that all primary and preparatory schools can use, rather in distinction from the college, and that, partly, from the difference in age of the students. There are several different skeleton plans now. The Boston people are all alive to the so-called Swedish system; and it does seem a good thing to give this a fair trial, for it is well worked out on paper and has met with success in the old world. A benediction is due to Mrs Hemenway for her generous gifts to make this subject more familiar than it is. The dumb bell, club, and free-hand class drill is stronger than it ever was before, and has come to stay among the colleges and older schools. And yet this, like most teaching, depends greatly upon the animus, power, and skill of the teachers; upon his or her individuality. They can spoil a system or a method if they have a mind to, or have not a heart or head in it.

Another thing you are asked to consider: we have the medical profession, and there is to be another one before long. It is not to be of the doctor or surgeon who patches us up when we are sick, but of him who will help us to take care of ourselves, and try to keep us in health of body and mind. The physician takes us when we are tumbling to pieces and tries to stick us together again. The new profession will not displace the old one, but give better bodies to be patched up and stuck together.

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But what has this profession to do with our common schools? Why, that we need this supervision and advice in all educational institutions, public and private, just as much as we need boards and examiners for the public health. We need this all the more in our schools, because attendance in them is compulsory. Every scholar should have a physical examination and measurements — within limits. Many an average child or its parents do not know whether it is near or far sighted, defective in hearing in one or both ears, or has some muscular or nervous defect. The examiner could often find out whether a child was weighted with a physical defect, or underdevelopment, which would account for his being a so-called stupid, naughty, or careless child. A pair of glasses has often raised the grade of a scholar 15 per cent. In other words the science of anthropometry is coming to reach into our common schools. The brain power develops alongside of, and proportionately with, a will power over the muscles. The boy or girl active and bright with the eye, hands, arms and legs, will be much more apt to work acutely in mental processes than the reverse.

It is said that some young people go to college to play ball and become athletes. Perhaps it is so; yes, one in 100, because facilities are good there for these things. And in some colleges there is a larger number who go simply because they want an A. B. appended to their names. Athletic training does not affect merely the "nine," or the "eleven," or the record breakers. For while a college nine is in training, there are class nines also, and 50 others, some of whom stand as substitutes, and above all catch the spirit, the poetry, and delight of vigorous freedom of muscular exercise. The contagion and example of the athletic men reach out to men not specially gifted, or hopeful or crazed in athletic contests, and help scores to go into the gymnasium or athletic field, and breathe more, sweat more, shake up the viscera more, sprawl around more on the grass and mother earth, and thus keep in better physical condition. It makes them for a time forget their brain work and sends their nerve force to the skin and grosser organs of the body, and shoots the red blood corpuscles all over the body after more ozone and oxygen. Not all the boys want to go on the nine, or are wanted there; but the training they get by example and physical touch is where the leaven works.

A matter incidental to this subject seems in place here. It is the test examination of children at the end of the year for promotion. The evil is the intense draft and pressure on the nervous organs and



functions of young and growing minds and bodies, at a critical time of life. The great and growing number of nervous and kidney diseases, and the yearly increasing number of commitments to our insane asylums may find their germs in the intense pressure of school promotion examinations.

May not this be lessened in part by more frequent reviews and examinations during the year instead of bringing all the agony at one fell swoop?

And who knows best the attainments of the scholars, the teacher who has daily contact with the mind, character and temperament of the scholar for a year, or the ever so brilliant and keen examiner who with the *experimentum crucis* in a few minutes passes his judgment on a complex matter of body, mind, character, susceptibility, home training, heredity and kindred components of the child.

#### RELATION OF PHYSICAL TRAINING TO EDUCATION IN GENERAL

Dr Luther Gulick, *Y. M. C. A. Training school, Springfield, Mass.* — It is my desire to show that physical training should be an integral part of general education, to indicate briefly the lines that should be followed, and to present a scheme capable of immediate adoption and involving little expense for its introduction into the public schools of this country.

That physical training bears an important relation to education in general is usually admitted. As to the nature of this relation there is much disagreement. This is due sometimes to a lack of knowledge as to the effects of exercise. I therefore preface my remarks with a brief epitome of these.

The subjective effects of exercise may be divided into two general classes, the physical and psychical. It is impossible to draw hard and fast lines between these classes, still the division is a useful one.

#### Physical effects

“Function develops structure in the line of its activity.” Muscular action increases the number and size of muscle cells engaged in the movement. The quantity of blood flowing through the muscle is increased. This is ordinarily accomplished by the arteries that lead to the seat of activity becoming enlarged while others are slightly contracted. The blood tension is thus kept constant. When the amount of muscle used is too great to allow the demand to be satisfied in this way, the heart beats faster, and this with the preceding, will accomplish the desired result. The blood flowing from

the used muscle contains carbonic acid gas (carbon dioxide) in considerable quantities exactly commensurate with the number of foot-pounds of energy expended, as this is one of the chief products of expended energy. This blood is carried to the lungs and there the carbon dioxide is given off and oxygen taken in. If the amount of energy expended is at all great the carbon dioxide is passed into the lungs faster than it is breathed out, soon the blood is unable to bring itself to the ordinary degree of purity, some portion of this impure blood passing around through the general circulation flows through the respiratory center in the medulla and stimulates it to greater activity and this causes the respiratory movements to deepen and hasten. When much muscular energy is expended the nutritive processes are all accelerated and the blood is furnished with materials to make good the waste.

Thus we see at once that there are two classes of physical effects: the *local* or effect on the muscle itself, and the *general* or effect on the heart, lungs and digestive organs through the blood. You have also noticed that in order to the *general* effect a considerable amount of energy must be expended. It matters not whether this be expended by a few small muscles or by many large ones. The amount expended, not the locality, is significant. These two classes of effects are in a measure antagonistic to each other. The condition which favors muscle growth most markedly is that as few muscles as possible shall be used at a time in order that each may secure its full supply of food. The condition which favors the general effect of exercise is that many muscles shall be used at a time so that a large amount of energy shall be spent in a short time, thus calling for activity of the heart and lungs. It is needless to say that as far as health is concerned, the general effects are what we desire, increase in muscle growth not being particularly effective in this direction.

In addition, however, to these there are others in some respects of even greater importance. The nerve fibers that carry the stimulus to the muscle cells develop. They become more numerous, transmit stimuli more rapidly and with greater economy than formerly. The nerve centers that originate the stimuli become gradually more highly organized, more capable of prolonged activity and of more intense action. During the period of their activity these centers receive a markedly increased supply of blood.

To sum up the physical effects of exercise. Muscles increase in size and in contracting ability. This is the local effect. The heart is strengthened by the extra demand on it, the lungs profit by their

extra exertion. All of the processes under the head of nutrition go on more vigorously. Thus the whole system is supplied with blood having greater potentiality than usual. The nerve centers become more highly organized and able to send stronger stimuli for a longer period of time than usual.

#### Psychical effects

Muscular exercise seems most intensely physical and yet the first requisite for it is *will*. And further when a muscle is used for a considerable time it becomes less able to contract; a strong will, however, will furnish stronger stimuli and secure equally forcible contractions. Very few people have strong enough wills to tire out their muscles. The will grows weary long before the muscle. A man becomes exhausted running, then attempts to play the piano but finds that the muscles of his hand refuse to contract with either their usual strength or quickness. It is not that those muscles have become tired, but the central stimulating organ or will is exhausted.

This is true of muscular movements in general. Special exercises have special effects. I once asked a lady who was teaching a somewhat complicated calisthenic drill what was the first quality needed in order to excel in such work, the answer was rightly made, "Concentration." The movements demanded the strictest attention, each movement was done so many counts, some eight, others four, occasionally positions were held for a few counts, and all to be remembered by the pupil. The muscular exertion demanded by the exercise was slight, the mental effort was large. The pupil who, of all the class, did the best work was a young woman of slight physique but of unusually bright mind. With cheeks flushed, lips moving as she kept the count, and eyes intently fixed on the leader she went through the exercises almost faultlessly. When the exercise was over I asked the teacher if she herself was tired; she said, "Yes, very tired." "Are you physically tired?" I asked, "No." "How are you tired?" After a longer pause, "I am mentally tired." These exercises were mental gymnastics far more than physical. Concentration and memory were demanded and trained far more than muscle.

Let a person who is not an expert with Indian clubs spend half an hour learning new movements, he will not ordinarily have expended very much physical energy, but he will be tired. He has had consciously to direct his muscles. After these exercises have been

thoroughly learned so that the clubs can be swung without giving any attention to them, he can swing them the same length of time without the least fatigue.

Let a person walk five miles on a level road and compare the fatigue experienced with that experienced after five miles on railroad ties where the ties are placed at unequal distances. The amount of physical energy expended is not markedly different in the two cases, the reverse is true of the degree of exhaustion. A person learning to ride the bicycle finds it most exhausting work mentally, the utmost concentration is demanded. The occurrence of anything to distract the attention is sure to be followed by disaster. Thus young ladies on the street are frequently the cause of the downfall of some would-be bicyclist friend. Later on however the control of the machine is all done without consciousness and the mind is free for other work.

Let a lot of school children attempt to stand on one leg and then bend forward so that the body and the other leg shall be parallel with the floor. The attention of every child who attempts it will be fully occupied with the exercise.

I have said enough under this head to illustrate some of the characteristics of the mental effort that is called for by physical exercises. Qualities secured by any exercise are the qualities demanded by that exercise. This indicates their psychical significance.

There is the same difference between mental health and mental education that there is between physical health and physical education. A baby may be perfectly healthy mentally and yet be quite uneducated, it may also be perfectly healthy physically and yet be quite uneducated physically. A baby's education is first physical, much that it learns comes either directly or indirectly through the muscular sense. The only sources of information that it has are physical in their nature, and the only avenues of expression that it has are physical, they are muscular. Deprive a man of all muscles and you at once deprive him of all methods of expression.

An apprentice enters a jeweler's store and attempts at once to do the fine work on a watch. He fails, not because he did not know what he wanted to do, not because he was not strong enough, but because he could not control his hands and fingers. He lacked physical education. A pianist shows a beginner how to play a scale rapidly. The pupil understands exactly what to do, he knows where to place his fingers, but he can not do as well as his teacher because he lacks physical control, physical education. And all the processes of learn-

ing to manage the hands and fingers are questions of physical training, and not either of watchmaking in the one case or of music in the other. They both involve training of the cerebellum, the organ of coordination. One may have the soul of a musician but be without the ability to express himself. He needs primarily physical education. There is another side to this quality. A man may have perfect control over his muscular system and yet be unable to make successfully, movements which involve calculation. For instance let a man attempt to catch a curved ball from one of our modern base ball pitchers. He may be able to control his hands and arms perfectly but unless he is able to tell where that ball is going to be when it passes him he will be as helpless as a baby. A man starts to jump a fence three feet high. He does not put into it as much energy nor does he jump as high as if it were four feet high. He calculates the height and jumps accordingly. This ability to calculate motion, estimate height, etc., is given only by physical training, in which quick perceptions and accurate judgment are involved and secured.

These in general being the effects of physical training, let me indicate briefly their relation to general and technical education.

The general effects of exercise may be summed up in one word, *health*. The other effects of which I have been speaking by the word, *education*.

1 It is a necessity in order to the best thinking and living that the brain be supplied with a regular and plentiful supply of blood, that this blood be kept free from carbon dioxide and charged with oxygen, and that it be well charged with good food materials. These results can be secured only when the heart regularly and vigorously sends the blood its customary rounds, when the lungs thoroughly purify it and charge it with oxygen, when the nutritive processes of the body are so stimulated that the digestive organs do their work with vigor and thoroughness. These three results are those secured by general exercise, and can not be secured to anything like their full extent without it.

Mind may not be physical still it is most absolutely dependent on the brain and this on the blood.

. Brain building without good blood is like trying to build up a house without new materials by tearing down what is done in one part to build in another, in the hope that eventually all will be built.

2 A symmetrically developed brain is impossible without the development of those centers which preside over muscular movement.

3 The brain centers which control muscular movement are located

immediately in connection with centers of the highest psychic order, and the organization of the former with the consequent stimulated blood flow and growth is markedly helpful in the development of the latter.

4 The younger the child the more difficult is abstract thought. Physical exercises of the educational class afford opportunities for developing the will, attention, concentration in ways that are definite, tangible and real to the youngest. Weak-minded children differ from normal children chiefly in being backward. Judicious physical exercise, by calling for these backward qualities in a tangible way, and at the same time furnishing the food for their growth, has been the means of development of many who were both physically, mentally and morally backward.

5 There are very few trades or professions but that involve physical action in some way, and generally of some skilled variety. It is consequently of great importance that these portions of the economy, brain and muscle, that are concerned in muscular action should be trained during the period of their natural growth, for if neglected at that time, it never again will be possible to secure the best results. A small amount of work at the right time will do as much as a large amount later. There is a proper sequence in the development of the brain centers that should not be departed from.

We must remember that all forms of physical activity are materially affected by physical exercise. The highest form of exercise of which the body is capable is expression of thoughts and emotions by gesture, attitude, facial motion or position, or inflections of the voice, and yet the acquisition of this is a part of physical training in its broad and true sense, training the body to express the mind, to mirror it out so that others may enter into the thought of the speaker.

6 The quantity and quality of exercise given to students must vary with the age, quantity and quality of the study being done at the time. In general all need some health gymnastics. Little school children need some of the elementary educational gymnastics. The higher grades should be trained in practical muscular control so that any of the trades could be taken up with greater readiness than usual, while the highest schools should be more engaged with the practice of expressional exercises.

Children should be so trained that skilled labor in any direction can be easily acquired. A well trained mind will master a new profession much more quickly and thoroughly than one not so trained. This is equally true of the body.



I have made reference to health gymnastics and to educative gymnastics. If my paper had been longer I should have spoken of the third division of the subject, recreative gymnastics, and have tried to show how in them the will of the individual is allowed free play and that thus they are markedly different from educative gymnastics.

This division of the subject is yet young, but it must enter largely into the work to be done by American school children.

The subject of physical training has been discussed very freely of late, but as yet not a great deal has been accomplished, partly perhaps because there has been no definite plan presented that was thorough and complete, and that did not at the outset involve the expenditure of large sums of money.

I believe that the only real solution of the difficulties along these lines lies in the adoption by the public school system of the entire country of systematic, judicious physical exercise.

I believe that this can be done in a thorough manner with a comparatively small expenditure of money in the following way. Let each city appoint a superintendent of physical training. Let him adopt or devise a scheme of exercise that can be carried on in the present school rooms without further apparatus than the floor and desks afford. Of course this must be adapted as I have already indicated to all grades and for the various objects of exercise. Let him meet the teachers of the city once or twice a week and give them instruction in both the theory and the practice of the exercises for the pupils. Let this instruction be given in one of the large class rooms in just the way in which the pupils should have it. Let these teachers then give the exercises to the pupils. I do not argue that regularly appointed gymnasiums are not desirable; they are, but excellent work can be done without them. The namby-pamby movements that usually go by the name of calisthenics are not what I refer to. I mean good vigorous exercise, both for health and recreation. The superintendent of physical education should spend his time aside from that required to instruct the teachers, in systematic visitation of the schools and in council with the teachers.

The blind following-out of any of the so-called systems of gymnastics will not accomplish what I have been speaking of. The best of them, the Swedish system, was built up for Sweden, but the nervous conditions of American city children are very different from those found in Sweden. The gymnastics which they are most profited by call for most intense concentration and self-control and

are not as beneficial to us as they might be. The American child is not the Swedish child and can not be similarly treated, if the best results are to be secured.

My reasons for advocating such a system are briefly :

1 That it can be done at once, as it involves no great outlay at first, and increased facilities can be given when its success is demonstrated.

2 That I believe that thorough work in all the grades can be done in this way.

I wish that a commissioner of physical education could be appointed for the nation. Could not such an institution as the University of the State of New York employ a competent man to forward the interests of this subject in the educational institutions of the state? Would it be possible, and if possible, desirable, for the state legislature to render physical education compulsory in all the public schools of the state? Physical education has vitally to do with the mental and moral life of the nation. Few truths are more clearly taught by history than that the physical condition of the people determines the fate of the nation.

The growth of the cities, with the consequent city life, the general use of machinery, medical science keeping alive the weak, the increasing intensity of life, all combine to make natural physical exercise more wanting and artificial exercise more necessary.

#### ATHLETICS AT YALE

**Charles F. Kent, *Palmyra, N. Y.***—I take it for granted that all of you here are familiar, if you read the newspapers, with the result of our athletics. I propose to give an idea of how the teams are turned out at Yale.

The dearest part of our athletics is the crew. A Yale man feels proud of the crew, but let us go back and see why this is so. Before Christmas the fellows that are going to try for the crew begin by taking long runs, generally the captain starts out with a run of 12 miles. After the Christmas vacation the real work begins. Down at the bottom of our gymnasium we have a tank filled with water, and there for two long months the men pull the oars in the dingy old hole, till at last the ice breaks on the harbor and the men are able to go out and work their way and try their oars on free water. Sometimes they are capsized to be sure, and you might think they would catch cold and wear themselves out, but that is not so; a little run and a little exercise, and it is all over. All this time they keep



we do not call upon the faculty, we call a meeting of the fellows and we discuss it and decide it.

Another result, right along the line in which Dr Hitchcock and Dr Gulick have been speaking, and that is the effect this athletic training has on the men in their mental work. A man that has been through the drill of rowing has control of himself and has learned what concentration means. In other words, he has learned that the time put in properly in one hour is made to accomplish as much as it otherwise does in two.

#### COLLEGE ATHLETICS

**Pres. H. E. Webster**— My friend, Secretary Dewey, in writing to me asking me to take part in this discussion did me the honor to say that I would be likely to say something that would raise discussion. How in the name of common sense the man came to think that of me is more than I can understand, because I never have anything to do with discussions. I always agree with everybody, unless he is entirely wrong.

Those of my age will remember when the faculty of a college did not trouble itself at all about athletics. We used to have occasional athletics, I remember, in the rooms round about the college building, and sometimes the faculty did trouble itself about that; but as to a system of athletics, they did not disturb themselves about it in any way.

Everybody will agree that there ought to be some sort of athletic training in colleges for the students, and I presume it will be generally agreed that this ought to be compulsory, because very many men really need the training more than others, inasmuch as they know that they can not by any possibility excel, and others because of their nervous condition hold back from this training. Yet there are other men who need to be restrained. There needs to be some competent, careful authority who will give heed to these questions. In the university many of us have come to think that there is no need of any such care or any such authority in regard to athletic matters, the function of the instructors there being simply to help a man after he has made up his mind what he will do; but in athletics there are men who need to be urged to practice and others who need to be restrained.

There are a great many difficult questions that come in. How long ought this to be compulsory? For one year, or two, or four? I can not answer that question. I simply propose it for other peo-

ple to answer. How many hours a week ought to be used for this purpose? Ought it to be an hour a day for six days, or half an hour a day for four days? I do not understand that very well. I want information and I think we shall get information rapidly this afternoon.

As to the relative importance of athletics and athletic training in colleges, I think there can be no doubt that athletics are more important. It seems to me from reading the press that if a man who knew nothing about the colleges of the United States should try to find out what the object of a college was, he could come to only one conclusion; that incidentally there was more or less study, but that the regular business was athletics. I may be wrong, but I think that would be the conclusion he would arrive at. I think it is easier to get money for athletics than for anything else. If you need books for your library you find more trouble in getting the means than for a football eleven or a baseball nine.

As to the real, true inwardness of athletics as a missionary enterprise, as something which may be regarded as an element in the moral reformation, I have never given the matter enough attention to know; but I do know that if it be so I heartily rejoice, because it has come to be understood in many of our institutions that we have nothing whatever to do with the moral character of the men. It seems to be understood that a young man who goes to college is to be allowed to develop along his own lines, and that anybody who interferes is impertinent. I myself believe in morals and I believe in the Christian religion, and I believe in both of them being taught in college. If therefore athletic training will come in to help us, every good man should rejoice.

There is another thing in my mind which has given me a great deal of trouble and that is intercollegiate athletics. A young man goes to college and is supposed to follow the curriculum. He is supposed to be in college and at his work. The faculty allow him to be absent one or two weeks in a term visiting round, getting general information, I suppose. Suppose that man fails in his work. Of course I know the better a man can play football the better he can recite psychology, but still there may be cases where it will not be true. Now what am I going to say to the father of this young man, to whom I have written, "We do not want your son in college because he has not done his work." He writes back, "What business had you to let him be away from college for a week or two at such a time?" I had no business, but what am I going to say to

him? I will say what I have made up my mind to do, I do not propose to let a man leave the college grounds on any intercollegiate business whatever, whose college standing is going to be affected by his absence. I would like to say to the colleges of this state, those of them who do not feel so fully committed to this matter that there is no going forward or backward, that I am very doubtful about the whole thing. It has grown on us so, little by little, that it has come to be a very large thing indeed. When we were boys we had no athletic training, unless walking five miles before school to a trout brook might be counted athletic training, but we used to go out and play ball, and pretty much everybody played ball. Now what has happened? If we missed a ball nobody died, but if a man misses a ball to-day it is far more serious than failing in a recitation. I venture to say that there is not a college in the country that has not a baseball nine or a football team, and where the best man in the nine or team does not hold a better place in the college than the best student in it who is not an athlete. I do not wish to be understood as against regular athletic training in college. My experience is wholly in favor of it, but I would say that while the results have been excellent, it requires the most careful consideration. There must be a man in charge of this business who has not only the knowledge, but who can give himself wholly to this work.

There are practical difficulties in many of our colleges in the way of carrying out a carefully prepared or extended scheme of athletics. In a college for example where there are no dormitories, where the pupils live within two or three miles of the college, I can see that there would be great difficulty in organizing a regular scheme of athletics. You can require it if you see fit to, but there are often many grave difficulties in carrying it out.

There is another difficulty which comes in which I have never heard mentioned. A great many new subjects have been added to our college curriculum within the last 25 years and there is a feeling that the college course is too long now. Yet we are called on to add something else which will take at least an hour a day, and at the same time to shorten the course. Every man who has been engaged in teaching for the past 25 years knows that the pressure has been very great indeed in the addition of new subjects, so that it really seems if we were barely skinning the surface of a number of things instead of doing sound work on a smaller number of things.

The student wants a good physique so that he can have as much

strength as possible for study. He wants enough of athletic training to do his work in the best possible manner, and that I believe can be obtained by a regular system of athletic training in our colleges. Of that training I am decidedly in favor.

#### GYMNASTIC WORK AT SMITH COLLEGE

**Miss Elizabeth C. Lawrence**, *Alumnæ gymnasium committee* — Within the past few years the interest in gymnastics at Smith college has considerably increased, owing largely to the efforts which have been made by the alumnæ to build a new gymnasium. In 1887 the need of a new building was imperative, as the wooden building which had been erected in 1879 proved too small for the increasing classes and was also poorly ventilated. The alumnæ, aided largely by personal gifts from the trustees of the college and from outside friends, secured funds for a new building which has been erected the past year and was opened last month, (June, 1891). The gymnasium is a two story brick building, the upper story offering a clear floor space larger than any, as yet, available in the other colleges for women in this country. Around the hall, 10 feet above the floor is a running track which serves also the purpose of a gallery for visitors. The lower story which is not yet completed is to be fitted with an ample number of dressing rooms and lockers — with baths and with a swimming tank. The question of the introduction of a bowling alley is not yet settled. The building as it at present stands has cost just under \$25,000 and \$4,000 or \$5,000 are needed to complete the lower story satisfactorily. Before the building is used in the fall it will be fitted with Swedish apparatus. This will be so arranged that in a few moments it can all be removed and a clear floor space be left for large class work.

From 1886 to 1889 the work at the college was under the supervision of Miss Gertrude Walker, a graduate of Dr Sargent's Sanatory gymnasium in Cambridge. During the past year Miss Adams, a graduate of Miss Mary E. Allen's gymnasium of Boston, has had the work in charge. The more nearly allied systems of Dr Sargent and Miss Allen have therefore been taught, although during the past year Miss Adams has introduced some of the Swedish work. With the coming year the Swedish system will be more fully introduced, Miss Grace H. Watson, a graduate of Boston university and of the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics, having been made instructor. The Swedish work is introduced because it is felt that this is a system fully elaborated and more carefully graded than any other

The exercises themselves are so varied that the pupils find nothing monotonous in them, and they tend to train the different organs of the body in a manner serving the great double purpose of promoting the efficiency of the circulatory and respiratory functions and of increasing the volitional control of the whole body rather than to develop physical specialists. From a practical point of view, too, it is found that large classes can be at exercise with simple apparatus, and with less waste of time than by some of the other methods.

Gymnastics are not ranked as a study at Smith college. Four afternoons of the week are given up to class work and the students of the first and second classes are required to spend half an hour in gymnastic practice on those days. For juniors and seniors the work is optional, and evening classes in more advanced work are formed by them, still under supervision of the instructor. Individual and specialized work is prescribed for any student for whom, for whatever reason, class work does not seem desirable. Such students have the advice of the resident physician as well as of the gymnasium instructor.

Taking college life as it is and the disinclination of the students for outdoor exercise during the winter months, the work which is thus required in the gymnasium is eminently desirable and helpful; and the effort should be to make the work as attractive as possible while yet it is carried on in a thoroughly systematic way.

#### SCHOOL ATHLETICS

**Prin. D. C. Farr**—The advocates of school athletics have a very difficult problem. That of college athletics has been thoroughly settled, so thoroughly settled, I suppose, that nothing will ever shake the foundation. It is generally conceded that athletics must have the first place in our colleges; but unfortunately the colleges have been crowding back so much work on the schools that they are not quite ready to make athletics the principal work in which they are engaged, and so we stand at a very great disadvantage in this respect. What to do is one of the problems of the future.

I see reasons why collegians can give so much more attention to this subject than those of younger years can in our schools. Their nervous systems can endure stronger shocks than can those of the boys and girls of immature years. We have been told to-day that the examinations that the students in our schools are subject to are a tremendous strain on their nervous energies. There never was an examination set where it required as much nervous strain as does a

baseball game or a football game. I fully agree with those that sympathize with the view that some systematic training should be given in our schools, and it should be given in such a way that every student shall have the benefit of the thing and as much of it as he is able profitably to take. It is absolutely certain that in the baseball field and the football field very few persons get any benefit whatsoever from it. As far as the physical training of boys is concerned, military drill has been found very useful, but that does not do anything for the girls. But it seems to be entirely possible to give to all such physical training as will do them the most good without giving it to such an extent as the athletic craze would seem to require.

If there was a parent that required his boys or girls to perform the amount of physical exercise at home that these games exact from them, he would be considered a candidate for a mad house, and it would be said that he was abusing his son or his daughter, and public sentiment would not allow it.

We are crazy on this subject. In order that our blood should circulate well it is not necessary that we should run 12 miles a day. It is not necessary for us to subject ourselves to any such inconvenience. I do not know that walking made Charles Dickens the famous novelist that he was. I had supposed that nature had done something for the man. So let us attribute to those things the things that belong to them. Because a young man happens to go to college, gets into a boat race and is successful, and happens to be a good scholar at the same time, I never supposed for a moment that it was the boat race that won his scholarship in Greek, but rather something in here. (Pointing to his head.)

I think the time has come when the secondary schools ought to do systematic work, but it is very difficult, and the colleges are somewhat responsible. They want to shorten their course and they want to crowd back upon the schools more work so that when a young man graduates with his B. A. he will be much more advanced in literary lines. If we are to be crowded, where is the time coming for this extra work? The cry of the schools ought to be heeded by our colleges. The schools are required to do more work than they ought to be expected to do. The colleges say to us, "Send us boys prepared to enter our examinations," and I honestly suspect that they know that they are not going to do much work when they get into college, and so they require of us to do all before they go. I wish the college would see to it that the boys when they get there



should do some work, and then we would be most happy to give systematic athletic training in the lower schools, and just as soon as they will do that we promise to do our part of it. I think the colleges are the chief sinners in this land. I hope I am not right, but I think I am.

**Prin. Solomon Sias** — Under the term "school athletics" I include all sports and exercises that tend to physical development.

A large number of schools labor under disadvantages. The school I represent is situated in a small village; the pupils are children of working parents, and out of school hours have home and farm work to do. Neither they nor their parents think they need physical exercise, and it is difficult showing them the difference between muscle use and physical training.

We have no gymnasium, and a large part of our exercises have to be carried on in one of the schoolrooms. We have tried calisthenic and light gymnastics, with and without music, for our young ladies; but the objection is made that they can not do the exercises properly in their usual dress. We have tried dancing; and have noticed an improvement in the ease and elasticity of the step, and in a more graceful carriage. The great objection to indoor exercise is the lack of pure air; and I question if the fine dust that is raised is not more injurious than the exercise is beneficial. In pleasant weather we have tried outdoor ball tossing and similar sports, and have derived benefit from them.

Our young men engage in the usual sports, such as running, jumping, baseball, and football. Care being taken to limit the amount of exercise. Outdoor gymnastic apparatus would be and has been injuriously used, and we have none on our playground. We have tried marching and various evolutions, and have found the benefits to be, a more erect carriage, greater attention to commands whenever given, and a habit of quicker obedience.

#### KINGSTON ACADEMY CADETS

**Prin. H. W. Callahan** — Military drill without strict discipline is of little value, and to secure this discipline in an institution where military training is not obligatory is exceedingly difficult. It requires tact, enthusiasm and determination to go through, and whether we can be successful another year with our company at Kingston is still a serious question. When we commenced, the boys were found staid, slow and slow in their gait. We placed before

them in as pleasant a light as possible the advantages to be derived from military training, we presented the bright side of Annapolis and West Point life. The clean-cut, live figure of the cadet was made the object of envy. To convince them that enlistment does not mean boys' play is a very important point. Our boys were shown that enlistment meant military service for a year; that it meant obedience. Suits were provided for them at a reasonable figure and orders were issued for a regular drill twice a week. It would be difficult for any one without having seen this company to understand or realize the advantage which it has been to our school. Every cadet wanted to be a good soldier. They put forth their very best energies to make a good company. The work of the drill was hard work. When the boys were about through, the company was characterized with all the dignity and discipline of any military organization. In marching, I have seldom seen better soldiers than those boys seemed to be. The company appeared in public on three occasions during the year. On Arbor day, after the public exercises, they were regularly inspected by the mavor assisted by the commissioned officers of the 14th Separate company. During the inspection they stood like a lot of statues. In their alignment, in their marching, etc., they were almost perfect. On Memorial day they were invited to lead the line by the Grand Army, and on commencement week the two platoons of the company drilled for a prize, which was made and presented to them by the young ladies of the academy. The boys have worked hard and have done well this year, but whether they will undertake the work which is necessary for success in another year, I do not know.

### General discussion

**Commissioner W : T. Harris, *U. S. Bureau of Education* —**  
I thank you for your kind reference to me. I consider it a great privilege to be able to be here this afternoon and hope that I may be able to-morrow to listen to the discussions on the topics announced. I have always thought, in my later years specially, that when I came to be present at a discussion on physical exercise, that it was my duty to utter two or three heresies which I hold on this subject; since I think it justifiable on the ground that anything which is not in the regular line of ideas and thought on this subject, perhaps may divert the attention toward possible discovery.

In early years I was a great believer in gymnastics pure and simple.



In after years, I may say for the last 25 years, I have been growing heretical on that subject. The body is not mere muscles, the body has a vital side, and these vital powers are involuntary ones. The muscles may be affected by the will, and all physical training, as I take it, consists in getting the will to take possession of the whole physical side. This is the case with almost every system of physical training. They think there is no limit to putting the will in the entire body. I think that we are in a way to discover that limit. Out of our experience we are going to have a science and I think that science is going to discover that there is a very sharp limit to putting the will into the body.

Then we shall have a series of prohibitions. We will say you must not exercise so long, must not exercise after a meal, etc. The heart movement is involuntary. Suppose we exercise the will power so as to stop the movement of the heart. Certainly this is very dangerous. The heart and especially the vital powers ought not to be interfered with by the will. We should keep our will back from this limit and anybody who has found out where his limit is ought not to exceed that limit.

This is merely the warning I feel impelled to give whenever I am present at a discussion of this kind.

#### ARE INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS TO STAY AT CORNELL?

PROF. BURT G. WILDER, CORNELL UNIVERSITY

[Prof. Wilder was unable to be present, but contributed a very full expression of his views in the following paper, which was received too late for use in the discussion.]

The writer has been much impressed by the following events, statements and expressions of opinion:

- 1 During the present term the baseball nine have been absent for about one fifth of the time of instruction.

- 2 While in attendance here they have participated in 14 match games with nines from abroad.

- 3 Among the 24 games played here and abroad, 17 were with "amateurs" and seven with "professionals."

- 4 During the college year just closing the two papers that are supposed to represent the purely literary element (as distinguished from the *Crank*, the organ of the departments of applied science) have been occupied largely by athletic chronicles, by appeals for attendance upon the games and for subscriptions, spiced in the daily with denunciations of the unresponsive, and innuendoes or open complaints against other institutions.

of the muscles and overstrain of the viscera, which are bound sooner or later to bring out bad results. Professional athletes (including prize-fighters, wrestlers, baseball and lacrosse players, gymnasts) are short-lived, have emphysema, and hypertrophy of the heart, and a large proportion of them die of phthisis (Tracy), a disease which the writer regards as being the most common cause of death in runners." — Dr R. L. MacDounell: *Our reference handbook of the medical sciences* vol. 5, p. 276; article, *Hygiene of occupations*.

12 "We regret that President Eliot should imply that the intercollegiate competitions can not be absolutely abolished. Nothing is simpler than an edict to that effect, and we believe that it is Harvard's mission to utter it." — *Nation*, Feb. 9, 1888.

13 "The censor who points out a better way at the same time that he denounces the bad way, is the only one who will be listened to while he smites." — *Nation*, March 14, 1889.

Fully recognizing the risk of being told that he knows nothing of the subject and is hence unqualified to judge, the writer frankly admits that (although he heartily participated in baseball and foot ball at the Brookline, Mass., high school), he has never witnessed an intercollegiate race or game; this has been mainly for fear of becoming prejudiced against them. He has however kept himself informed through the columns of the college papers, in the certainty that any possible rosy tinge would be reflected therein.

Thus illuminated, the writer has commented upon the subject in his lectures on hygiene (1868–1888) and in the successive editions of the *Health notes for students* (1870–1890) with a consistency which he feels deserved a more popular cause; his sincerity rather than any more acceptable attribute probably led the editors of the *Era* to invite him among other members of the faculty to formulate his views in that journal for Jan. 20, 1888. The further — and final — remarks that he now is moved to make may properly be introduced by that article:

In the *Register*, the official announcement of the university, it is distinctly implied that the provisions for "physical training and development" are made in order that students may be sounder in body than they otherwise might be, and may thus employ their minds to better advantage for their own sake and for the credit of the institution.

It is nowhere intimated that these facilities are, or that any others may be, given in order that individuals, groups, classes or details from the university at large, may be enabled to prepare for *contests* of any

kind, in or out of college. Attention is called to the above, to show that the burden of proof to the contrary rests entirely with those who hold that the welfare of the university depends upon concessions by the faculty and contributions by the students for the sake of a semi-professional athleticism.

It may be inferred that, in my mind, there are "athletics and athletics." It is to be feared that all do not draw the distinctions with any practical clearness, and that the community suffers from this particular form of "the great bad."

I wish that every student, without distinction of sex, might be something of an athlete, and even shine rather brightly in some one direction. I should like a weekly or at least a monthly competition between individuals, either merely as such or as representing different natural groups, modes of work or preparation. After a few years of this sort of athletics, broad in scope, and generous in spirit, I believe there would be a manifest improvement in our health and scholarship; there might be many like our twice elected fellow, Summers, to exemplify the rigor with which the faculty habitually "discourage" athletes.

Very different, as it seems to me, are the conditions and effects of that kind of athleticism which pits class against class and college against college. Aside from the wholly artificial and non-significant nature of those assemblages, races and match-games seem to foster undesirable sentiments and actions, and almost inevitably interfere with regular mental work; it is probable that each year there are many who wish, too late, that they had made different use of the time, money or strength which thoughtlessness or importunity had led them to devote to class or college contests.

What compensating good results from intercollegiate athletics? The "crews" and "team" embrace perhaps 50 out of our 1,000 students. Admitting, for the sake of argument, what is far from proven, that "training" is conducive to real and permanent health, *it affects directly only five per cent of the whole number of students* and those, too, who are already exceptionally sound and strong, leaving to the vast majority the dubious privileges of supplying money — and noise.

The apparent claims of this form of athleticism are thus reduced to two; viz., (1) that certain students "gifted with an uncontrollable exuberance of energy" are thereby "kept out of mischief," and (2) that the institution is "advertised" by its victories and even by its honorable defeats.

As to the first claim, whatever may be said of other institutions, it may fairly be questioned whether this university was founded for persons who can not direct their powers into orderly channels. [The "dangerous classes" should not be tolerated as beneficiaries of a university.]

It is equally doubtful whether those who are attracted mainly by the reverberations of the "Cornell yell" contribute materially to the excellence of our scholarship or behavior.

Were it conceivable that intercollegiate champions or their backers should ever constitute a majority of our trustees or faculty, the logical apotheosis of a recently expressed view would require that each matriculant should agree to be assessed regularly for the support of certain persons who might perhaps be retained *pro forma* on our rolls but from whom should be asked no more intellectual effort than was expected of the gladiators at Rome; *a ludo ad ludicrum*.

To sum up: The faculty may wisely facilitate exhibitions of individual strength and skill, but should make no official provision for intercollegiate or class contests. The students would do well to take an active part in the former and should be willing to pay for entertainments which they wish to attend as spectators only; but each should reserve the right to determine where *his* time and *his* money will do the most good, and hesitate long before investing either in enterprises which are very gratuitously assumed to be essential to the "glory of Cornell."

In estimating the value of the foregoing as independent testimony it should be noted that the writer had not then seen the discussions of the subject in the annual reports of the president of Harvard university; that for 1886-7 is a most formidable arraignment and is here reproduced:

"Football, baseball and rowing are liable to abuses which do not attach to the sports themselves so much as to their accompaniments under the present system of intercollegiate competitions. These abuses are: extravagant expenditure by and for the ball players and the crews; the interruption of college work which exaggerated interest in the frequent ball matches causes; betting; trickery condoned by a public opinion which demands victory; and the hysterical demonstrations of the college public over successful games. These follies can best be kept in check — they can not be eradicated — by reducing the number of intercollegiate competitions to the lowest terms."

The foregoing became the basis of an extended editorial in the *Nation* for Feb. 9, 1888, from which are taken the following extracts:

"Sports need not be abandoned, but just as they will no longer be marbles or peg-top, so they should be subordinated to the main object for which men go to college. The dignity of the institution should beget a corresponding dignity and self-restraint and steady application in the beneficiary. The unspeakable importance of these years for the cultivation of the faculties and the formation of character in preparation for the struggle for existence, should sober and steady all but those already corrupted by the taint of wealth. But it can not be denied that childishness is fostered by intercollegiate contests, not only in the shape of 'hysterical demonstrations over successful games,' but in giving such a predominance to the athletic interest that recreation and enjoyment, or the having what is called a good time, becomes the most potent attraction which a college education holds out.

It is clear that nothing could be more opposed to the efficiency of the college training than an habitual substitution, for pride in the intellectual standing and ample equipment of alma mater, of pride in her muscular supremacy. Do we not, in fact, see colleges which are lagging in the race of improved methods and enlarged scope of instruction, hug the delusion that this is offset by the trophies of the sporting ground?

The intercollegiate games bring the college world down to the level of the professional gambler. It is incontestable that students whose minds are constantly filled with the thought of intercollegiate rivalry at sports, follow with the greatest zest the course of the professional matches all over the country, turn to them first in the morning paper, make them staple of their conversation. This is bad enough, but unavoidably they catch the tone of these vulgar performances, they practice or are on their guard against 'trickery condoned by public opinion,' and above all they fall easily into habits of betting on the result. The ill feeling thus engendered, the charges of foul play, unfair umpiring, spying, concealment, lying, are disgustingly visible on the grounds or in the echoes of the college press. No man ever felt elevated by witnessing such encounters, and their degrading influence speaks both to the eye and to the understanding.

Great masses of young men can not thus be brought together with professional excitement and manners without abusing the





etc., has very great influence with certain classes of boys; I am inclined to agree with them."

Williams: "Most of those who go to college for athletic honors will choose the university where the competition and distinction in this field are so much greater."

Cornell: "We have no means of knowing that attendance has ever been influenced by athletic victories or defeats."

Yale: "While it is possible that the increase during the last two years may be in a very small degree due to Yale's athletic victories, yet probably it may be traced to more important causes."

The replies from Columbia, Brown, Amherst, Bowdoin, Oberlin, and Boston university are in the negative.

Harvard: "I have never been able to make out that success in intercollegiate competitions had any such effect either here or elsewhere."

From the Institute of Technology the apparently affirmative response is accompanied with what Bothwell, in Scott's *Old mortality*, called a "qualification." "To put it upon the lowest possible scale, college athletics bring young men into colleges just as truly as flaming posters and brass bands and illuminated entrances bring young men and old into theaters." But President Walker here evidently refers to those "young men who have no decided inclination toward college and no plans for the future in which college training constitutes an essential feature;" and elsewhere he is reported to have added: "Whether those who act in any appreciable degree under such an impulse (as athletics) bring much strength to the college or derive much virtue from it is not now the question." On this point the present writer may be permitted to express the opinion, based upon somewhat careful observations since the opening of the university, that (with some honorable exceptions among the actual players and oarsmen rather than among the constant spectators and the betters) so far as order, scholarship and reputation are concerned, it would have been well for Cornell to pay the tuition at any other institution of such as have come or remained here wholly or mainly on account of intercollegiate athletic contests.

There will now be given brief remarks from various sources with occasional commentaries; some apply to the general question, others to particular phases of it; some to all institutions, others more directly to Cornell; the writer is profoundly gratified at the considerable number of cases of his entire agreement with the views of his colleagues and of the editors of the college papers, and ventures to hope for their cooperation in at least the immediate purpose of this article.

"The present question of collegiate athletics is not whether manly sports should be encouraged, but what are fair and manly limitations both in the regulation of such sports and in devotion to them. Walking is a noble and wholesome exercise. But does it follow that walking 5,000 miles in 5,000 continuous hours is noble and wholesome? Bacon's rule of moderation is the manly rule."— *Easy chair, Harper's magazine, Feb. 1890.*

"No more vigorous stimulus and excitement can be furnished to the great mass of students than is found in the good fellowship and competition of the *friendly* club, society, class or college wherein all are made safely and hilariously to forget the hard pressure of brain work and compel a better cultivation of the organic and animal faculties."— PROF. HITCHCOCK, sr, *Amherst Program for June 24, 1890.*

"I would put gymnastics into the curriculum of every college, and would make a physical examination as prominent a part of the preliminary examinations as are now those in the preparatory studies."— PROF. R. H. THURSTON, *Era, Jan. 20, 1888.*

"The mania for athletics in England seemed to me to have perverted, so far as a good many of the students are concerned, the objects of the university, set up a totally false standard of excellence, and almost misdirected the aim of life. Games and exercises, carried beyond a certain measure, though they may not injure the body like some other indulgences, are but dissipations to the mind."— PROF. GOLDWIN SMITH, *A trip to England.* See also the *Era* of Feb. 9, 1889, for a fuller discussion of *Modern athleticism* by the same generous friend of this university.

"There is a disposition abroad to allow athletics to usurp the position of an end in themselves, instead of remaining an important means to a useful end."— *Chambers journal, Aug. 1890, p. 470.* See also the *Atlantic, Jan. 1882.*

"I am opposed to intemperance of any kind; the student who devotes himself intemperately to athletics is likely to fail of the object for which he came to the university."— PRES. ADAMS, *Era, Jan. 20, 1888.*

"The sole object of a gymnasium and of all our attention to athletics should be to keep the body in a perfect physical condition for doing the work of education."— PRES. ADAMS, *Annual address, Sun, Sept. 28, 1888.*

"If the maintenance of college spirit were the sole object of intercollegiate sports, I would not commend them; nor, if intercol-



legiate sports were the sole object of college athletics, would I commend those."—PROF. B. I. WHEELER, *Era*, Jan. 27, 1888, p. 175.

"If we could discover the one man in college who was working harder for success than any other student in the same institution, we should undoubtedly find in his hand a book and not a ball."—REV. PHILLIPS BROOKS, *Harvard baccalaureates* 1890, as reported in the *Boston Advertiser*.

"Last summer our crew, though not victorious, strove so hard for victory that the men fainted in their boat. I can conceive of no greater devotion to their alma mater than that."—Address of the president of Columbia college, after his first chapel service, Feb. 6, 1890, as reported in the *Tribune*, Feb. 7, 1890.

"Athletics leave a vast majority, say 956 out of 1,000 to take care of the scholarship."—*Sun*, Jan. 9, 1888.

"College athletics should be founded on a basis of the greatest good to the largest number, not an ideal of over-exertion which defeats its own ends."—*Sun*, Nov. 22, 1890.

"The general and moderate participation of large numbers of students in athletic exercise is of far greater consequence than the preparation of a few specialists, pleasant as the latter distinction may be."—PROF. H. S. WHITE, *Era*, Jan. 27, 1888, p. 176.

"From the educational point of view, the main object of intercollegiate contests is to increase the number of students who habitually take part in manly sports; and the real test is therefore the amount of activity on the home grounds. A strict application of this principle would exclude intercollegiate matches between freshmen."—*Report* of the president of Harvard, 1889-90, p. 17.

"Whenever any team or management becomes more anxious to win a game over a rival than careful to conduct the contest in a spirit of entire fairness, the greatest danger to which intercollegiate athletics are exposed has been reached."—*Era*, May 30, 1891.

"The average student is not urged or incited to enter the sharp competition of league, intercollegiate or national sports."—PROF. HITCHCOCK, sr, *Amherst program for June 24*, 1890.

"The majority of athletes are average students. But how can an average student get along in the university, if he devotes three or four hours a day to careful training?"—*Cornell Sun*, Jan. 9, 1888.

"It is due to class spirit that the interest in athletics is kept alive."—*Sun*, Oct. 30, 1889.

The writer believes he is not alone in regarding the "class," in a large institution like Cornell, as a heterogeneous aggregation of

accidental contemporaries, and that for many who regard college notoriety as nothing to future fame, class politics have about the same interest as the mysteries of "Theta Nu Epsilon" or the froth on the beer—and in the conversation—at "our metallic host's."

"If the alternative of porch and garden were the bull-fight, or the mill between the Tutbury Pet and the Whitechapel Bantam, or a main of cocks or a dog-fight, which would the ingenuous college public select?

"The rules of some games guilelessly betray their tendency. Choking and slugging are positively forbidden. Manly sports! School of the gentleman and of honorable courage! Let us hope that reckless profanity and insults to the ladies are earnestly deprecated."—*Easy chair, Harper's magazine, Feb. 1890.*

"It took 51 serious accidents during the last season to put and keep 77 football players in the field for seven colleges. Kidneys, knees, heads, broken noses and spiked eyes were among the worst."—*Tribune, Dec. 14, 1889.*

"Football of every description has been prohibited at the University of Heidelberg."—*Sun, Nov. 18, 1890.*

"Football has to be constantly watched lest it become brutal."—*Report of the president of Harvard, 1886-87.*

"In football the foul plays, technical and literal, are very difficult to detect and to prevent; the unfair or brutal player has more than an even chance of escaping detection; and at the worst, he will only be disqualified, and a fresh, unfatigued player takes his place."—*Nation, Nov. 20, 1890.*

"I desire to record my individual opinion in deprecation of the game of football, in which I have been able to discover no form of exercise which may not be gained quite as satisfactorily in other pastimes less objectionable."—PROF. H. S. WHITE, *Era, Jan. 27, 1888, p. 176.*

"The characteristics of football that are particularly prominent and the general success of the game might suggest that if gladiatorial shows were allowed they would be enormously profitable."—*Era editorial, Nov. 29, 1890.*

"There is a rowdy element in the eleven, and the slugging should be suppressed at once. In the game with Rochester a Cornell man was seen to deliberately hit a man in the face with his fist. Cornell has a reputation for slugging among all the college teams with which he has played."—*Sun editorial, Oct. 23, 1889.*

The following definition is based upon the most favorable descriptions of intercollegiate football accessible to the writer:— A generally accepted test of the relative merits of educational institutions, performed by those who are commonly noted for muscular development; it is also alleged to materially improve the health of the entire student body, but the few actual participators are already in superb physical condition, while many of the spectators, sadly needing systematic exercise, merely stand in the mud and take cold.

The logic that perpetuates this sort of thing may well be mated with the following:

“ A — Come, now, you must own that you have gone partly mad on the score of gymnastics.

B — Mad? Why, gymnastics means strength, health, long life.

A — That may be, but the fact is our forefathers knew nothing of gymnastics, and —

B — And they are dead, every man Jack of them! — ”

As to the common claim of the self-confessed small minority that all this is for the advantage of the university, the completest parallel is the “ inspired ” declaration of the male Mormon that polygamy has for its end not his own pleasure but the salvation of the other sex.

Among 1000 intelligent and well-disposed youths, many of whom mount a considerable hill once or twice daily, the encouragement to regular and moderate exercise no more calls for set contests between champions than does the encouragement of good living for intercollegiate eating matches.

Eliminate the players themselves, those who have been persuaded (or bullied) into subscribing, all who have staked money or property on the result, and last those who are willing to be amused without paying for it, and there will remain perhaps a small minority of thoroughly disinterested persons who can declare their sincere conviction that intercollegiate athletic contests are essential to the welfare of Cornell.

“ But one tenth of the students of this university have subscribed anything to the support of the football eleven.” — *Sun*, Nov. 7, 1888.

“ \$4,000 is an absolute necessity for the crews; numbers of men have refused outright to contribute.” — *Sun*, Feb. 11, 1890.

“ There are over 800 men who have not subscribed a cent to the crew fund; this disgraceful fact can be glossed over no longer.” — *Sun*, April 23, 1889.

Upon another occasion the same journal declared that “ every one of those non-subscribers ought to be ashamed of himself.” The date

has been lost, but the words are not easily forgotten. Were the advocates of foreign missions to adopt this style would it not be suspected that they either cared more for their own bodies than for the souls of the heathen, or that they had staked money upon the number of converts their special band should make within a given period?

"There are over 1000 students in the university who have not subscribed a cent for football this fall. What is the reason? We will deny most decidedly that Cornell students on the average are stingy or mean."—*Sun*, Nov. 6, 1889.

In the *Sun* of Feb. 11, 1890, those who decline to subscribe to the "crew fund" are condemned editorially as manifesting a "mean and disloyal spirit." In reply to the writer's request that such denunciations be discontinued on the score of good taste, the editors restrict (Feb. 15) the application to the proper class, "those who take to themselves credit for the achievements of the teams to whose success they have in no way contributed," and concede that "it is no more just to require those who are not interested to subscribe to the support of athletics, than to require a gravedigger to be versed in the fine anatomy of the brain."

The condition of things described by the president of Harvard is practically a partial prostitution of a great intellectual foundation to purely physical ends. It is as if the small army of the United States should put itself under the control of that element of our population which takes a vicarious delight in the fighting of other people, and unite therewith in urging the industrious and peaceably disposed portion of the community to declare and carry on war against another nation between which and ourselves should be only generous rivalry in furthering the progress of civilization.

Taking all things into account it may be that at Yale and Harvard and some other colleges, there is no escape from a compromise; but why should we copy them to-day in athletics when in more essential matters we took an independent course 23 years ago? If any just inference may be drawn from the lives of Henry W. Sage, John McGraw and Ezra Cornell, from the founder's words, and from the character, circumstances and aims of most of our students, then for us to follow the lead of the above named institutions in respect to athletics is no more creditable than the slavish imitation by Americans of manners and customs that have no other merit than their exoticism.

The writer firmly believes that the prevailing athletomania is a

passing "craze" like the now almost forgotten "Grecian bend" (really original with the chimpanzee) and like the more recent estheticism from which undoubtedly athleticism is a comparatively healthy and laudable reaction; but that it is nevertheless an extreme and hence undesirable. If those who are of this mind wish to place Cornell in the van of an inevitable movement for the athletic moderation counseled by the president of the university, let them convey an expression of their views to the governing body.

In conformity with the wise aphorism in paragraph 12 in the earlier part of this article, the following suggestions are respectfully submitted to all interested in Cornell university:

1 Let there be a *director of amusements* who, in cooperation with representatives of the trustees, faculty and students, shall see that entertainments of various kinds are made available under various conditions. The incumbent would need to have a somewhat rare combination of qualities, and he would be worth the highest compensation. This proposition is based upon the idea of a "professorship of fun," put forth by the founder of the famous school known as the "Gunnery." [The reference to the place of original appearance has been mislaid, but the paragraph is reproduced on p. 72 of the *Health notes for students*, 1890.]

2 The headquarters of the director of amusements would naturally be the proposed Alumni hall for which ex-Pres. White has conditionally offered the sum of \$10,000.

3 Billiards and card-playing should be not only provided for but encouraged, with absolute restrictions as to gambling and the use of liquor, even beer, and such arrangements as should enable non-smokers to enjoy the games.

4 Let tennis be the leading sport in colleges and the only basis for intercollegiate athletic competition. The standards as to physical excellence, manliness, honor and true courage would speedily change for the better; further, in the event of war or other emergency calling for the finest combination of qualities useful in either officer or private, no other "champions" would equal those who had maintained superiority at tennis. (Since the writer plays neither tennis nor billiards the above specific suggestions may be accepted as free from personal bias.)

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[The writer's specific recommendations for Cornell university were embodied in the following form of contract, appended to this paper in an Ithaca journal where it was first published.]

The undersigned hereby promises to pay \$ ——— toward the extinction of the legitimate debts outstanding June 3, 1891, on

account of the football team, the baseball nine and the navy of Cornell university, upon the following conditions :

1 On or before the 15th of October, 1891, the faculty of Cornell university are to pass a resolution forbidding its students to take part, as if representing the university, in any rowing, baseball or football contest with persons other than members of this university, whether in term time or in vacation, prior to July 1, 1894.

2 The legitimacy of the debts is to be determined by a committee consisting of the graduate treasurer, the professor of physical culture and the military commandant, or of such other three persons, graduates or officers of the university, as they may individually or collectively select to represent them.

3 After the 15th of October, 1891, the sums here subscribed are to be paid to the graduate treasurer or his representative within 10 days after notice from him, and a receipt is to be given by him therefor; this payment is, however, limited by sections 1 and 5.

4 Any surplus is to be turned over to the trustees of the Percy Athletic field to be expended or invested, according to their judgment, otherwise than for the direct encouragement of the extra-university contests above named.

5 In case, by the 10th of October, 1891, the subscriptions do not equal the total existing debts, determined as above stated, the subscribers shall have an opportunity to express their individual preferences as to whether their subscriptions shall be canceled, or applied to the extinction of the debts on account of the football team and the baseball nine, one or both in the order named, upon conditions that, before Jan. 1, 1892, the faculty prohibit extra-university football and baseball contests, one or both in the order named. Any remnant or surplus is to be transferred as indicated in section 4.

Signed,       — —

The signature is to be accompanied by the home address of the subscriber, and his relation to the university, whether trustee, professor or other officer; if an alumnus, by the year of graduation; otherwise by the years of attendance.

Section 1 includes a money contract between the university and the subscribers; the interdiction could not be disregarded in ignorance by any, or deliberately by one who is worth keeping as a student.

It is desirable that an extra copy of this paper should be retained by each subscriber for reference; copies of it and of an article presenting the facts and considerations which led to its preparation may



be found in the upper anatomical laboratory, McGraw hall, or obtained by addressing the writer, to whom also, for the present at least, the signed copies may be sent.

No one will be asked to sign this paper; but it is to be noted that even the smallest sum expresses the opinion of the subscriber and constitutes a memorial to the faculty.

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**Wednesday evening, July 8**

## THE PLACE OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

ANNUAL ADDRESS BY PRES. FRANCIS A. WALKER, MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF  
TECHNOLOGY

My subject is, the place of schools of applied science and technology in the American system of education; but it may conduce to a better understanding if I offer a few preliminary remarks regarding three different kinds of schools which are at present greatly confused in the public mind.

We have, first, the trade school. Schools of this class may be of a very elementary or of a very advanced order; their pupils may be mere children, or they may be grown men and women; the work prosecuted in them may have reference to the most petty of mechanical trades, or it may be in preparation for artistic avocation of no low degree. That which characterizes schools of this class, that which makes them trade schools, is the purpose to train the actual workers in industry, and to train them for what it is presumed will be their occupation in life. In the main, it is not the object of these schools to train the overseers and superintendents of labor, but the individual operatives. In general, too, the work of these schools assumes that the particular avocation for life of those who enter them is already practically determined. Efforts at industrial education in Europe have very largely taken this form. The trade schools of Switzerland, Holland and France are schools in which young people are taught definite trades, generally such as are carried on in the immediate region.

Schools of this class are not altogether unknown in the United States. The trade schools of Col. Auchmuty have acquired a wide celebrity. The Cooper institute of New York has long carried on a large and diversified work of this character, and more recently the

Pratt institute of Brooklyn, in addition to its work of general education, has undertaken to prepare young people directly and specifically for their work in life.

Whether the time has come in the development of the educational and industrial system of the United States for the incorporation of trade schools into the general scheme of public instruction may well be doubted. But I see no reason to question that that scheme might, in every considerable community, be advantageously supplemented by schools set up under municipal control, or by private enterprise, for teaching under skilled and scientific direction the arts and trades practiced in those communities respectively.

The second class of schools now to be spoken of are those in which the mechanic arts are taught as a means to general education. The great prototype is found in the imperial Russian school whose superb exhibit at Philadelphia in 1876 led immediately to the establishment of a high school of mechanic arts as a subordinate feature of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The first scion from the tree thus planted in American soil was the Manual Training school of St Louis, a constituent part of the Washington university of that city. Of recent years, high schools of this class have been thickly set over the United States, specially at the west.

The object sought in schools of this class is not the teaching of trades, but the complete and symmetrical education and development of the pupils. There is here no presumption that the pupil will take for his vocation in life the trade which he is called to practice in the school. The arts adopted for the purposes of this kind of instruction are no longer those which are pursued in the immediate region, but those which are best adapted to the purposes of the teacher. No pecuniary use is sought to be made of the product of these exercises any more than would be done with the products of grammatical or arithmetical exercises. The object in view is not construction but instruction. The entire value of manual training, so called, is realized, not in merchantable goods but in the minds of the pupils.

The pressing need for the introduction into our public school system of studies and exercises like those under consideration is largely the result of modern conditions. A generation ago there was an abundance of useful work to occupy the time and energy of almost every school-boy out of school. These tasks constituted, in some respects, the most useful part of his training. They wrought into the very fabric of his being the idea and sentiment of a common family interest; they gave scope and play to the creative and con-



structive faculty ; they trained eye and hand to accuracy and precision ; they taught the child to respect toil and to value the fruits of labor ; they sweetened the bread of poverty and made sounder the sleep of childhood. To-day under the new conditions of production it would, in almost every city home and in many village homes, cost more to keep a boy usefully employed than to feed him in idleness. Even play of any satisfactory sort is scarcely practicable in our modern cities. Search any large city on a pleasant Saturday afternoon and, out of thousands of boys who should be doing something with energy and enthusiasm, their muscles all strung, their blood tingling in their veins, you will not find one in 50 doing anything which would be even a poor caricature of old-fashioned country sport. It is the fast-growing appreciation of this state of things which is giving direction and force to the popular demand for the introduction of manual training into our public schools.

The last of the three classes of schools comprises schools of applied science and technology whose purpose it is to train engineers, architects, geologists, chemists and metallurgists for the work of their several professions. These schools do not aim to educate the men who are to do the manual work of modern industry, although manual exercises may be, sometimes are, and I think always should be largely prescribed in them as a means of general education ; as affording play and scope to the constructive and inventive faculty ; as affording a practical knowledge of the materials of construction which can not fail to be useful in the practice of the several professions ; and, finally, as developing the economic sense, the sense, that is, of cost, the sense which appreciates the relation between effort and result. It is this class of schools which form the subject of my remarks this evening.

I have said that these schools do not aim to educate the men who are to do the work of modern industry. It, further may be said that in the main they do not even aim to educate the men who are to oversee and direct the work of others — the men who are to act as superintendents of labor. It is the function of this class of schools to train those who shall investigate the material resources of the country or project operations for the development of these resources, to be carried on by bodies of labor and of capital under the direction of persons who have received their education and training in schools of a different order, or through practical experience in the mine, the field and the shop.

The earliest of the American schools of this class is never to be

mentioned without honor — the Rensselaer Polytechnic institute of Troy. The splendid work done by this school of civil engineering and bridge building, especially before the civil war, rightly entitles it to a high place in the history of American education. The school which next deserves to be mentioned is the Sheffield Scientific school. At a much later date than the Troy Polytechnic, yet still long before the civil war, the foundations of this noble school were laid at New Haven, with little of observation and less of encouragement, by a small group of devoted men of the highest scientific endowments. It was in 1847 that the *Yale catalogue* announced the formation of its department of philosophy and arts together with the appointment of Benjamin Silliman, jr, as professor of chemistry and the kindred sciences, as applied to the arts, and of John P. Norton as professor of agricultural chemistry and vegetable and animal physiology. In 1852 William A. Norton was appointed professor of civil engineering, and organized the engineering section of the college. In 1860 Chester S. Lyman was appointed professor of industrial mechanics and physics. In the same year with the formation of the department of philosophy and arts of New Haven the Lawrence Scientific school was founded at Cambridge, though the latter was destined to become more renowned as a school of research than as a school of instruction.

Among the vast changes in the spirit and life of our country, in the arts, the industries, the ideas, the aspirations of the American people which were brought about by, or which coincided with, the great struggle from 1861 to 1865, none is more remarkable than the rapid development of schools of applied science and technology. It is no part of my duty to name even the most important of these, or to attempt to divide among them the honor of what they have as a whole achieved. I shall confine myself to accounting, as far as I may, for the rapidity with which these schools have spread over the land and to estimating their place in our educational system.

The nearest and easiest thing to say regarding the growth of scientific and technical schools since the fortunate conclusion of the civil war, is that the industrial development of the country had reached the point where it had become necessary that the enterprises into which our labor and capital were to be put should be organized and directed with much more of skill and scientific knowledge than had been applied to our earlier efforts at manufactures and transportation; and so in the fullness of time scientific and technical schools came. In this view there is much of truth. The vaster

enterprises of these later days, the ever increasing possibilities of modern commerce and industry, the intensifying severity of competition due to quickened communication, fast mails, cheap freights and ocean cables had indeed created an urgent want for greater technical skill and more highly trained intelligence. The old wasteful ways of dealing with materials, the rule-of-thumb methods of construction, the haphazard administration, characteristic of our earlier industrial efforts could not have been continued without greatly retarding the national development and without irreparable loss in the result. But not at the time spoken of had this want become one of which our people were generally conscious; much less had it created a demand for such institutions which would of itself have sufficed to bring them into existence. The establishment of scientific and technical schools in the United States was to constitute a striking instance of the principle that in some things supply must create demand.

Economists and people generally are so much accustomed to think of the more usual condition in which demand creates supply that they often forget — indeed to many it never occurs — that there is another large class of cases, and these far the most important of all, in which the opposite rule obtains. In the lower ranges of life, in matters of clothing, food and shelter, and indeed in holding on to whatever advances civilization has once fairly and fully made, whether in material or in higher things, the conscious wants of humanity will in all ordinary cases suffice to secure the due supply without any organized public or private effort other than that originating in personal interest. But in all things high and fine, and generally also in every advance which material civilization is to make, there must be a better intelligence than that of the market, which shall apprehend, not what the people want, but what they ought to want; there must be disinterested efforts on the part of the natural leaders of society, which shall secure, at whatever sacrifice, such a demonstration of the merits and advantages of the yet unknown thing, such a supply of the new good, as shall create the demand for it. It will not be till that want has been fairly and fully wrought into the public consciousness that the supply may thereafter be left to take care of itself.

The American schools of technology illustrate in an eminent degree the law of human progress which I have stated. These schools did not come into existence in obedience to a demand for them. They were created through the foresight, the unselfish devotion, the

strenuous endeavor of a few rich men and of many very poor men, known as professors of mathematics, chemistry, physics and geology. At the time they came into existence there was a smaller demand for technically trained men than there is to-day, when for 25 years these schools have been pouring out their hundreds of graduates annually. That demand has been created by first furnishing the supply by showing what young men properly educated and highly trained can do in organizing and directing the forces of American industry.

That these schools, in spite of the fact that they had everything to do at once and little to do it with ; in spite of the fact that they had no traditions to govern them and had, indeed, the whole philosophy of their subject to evoke, *a priori* ; in spite of general public indifference and even of much contempt, have done their work exceedingly well, even from the first, is fairly implied in the foregoing statement. It is truly remarkable that with so little to go by and so much to do, all at once, out of such scanty means there should have been so little waste of effort, so little done injudiciously, so few steps taken that needed to be retraced.

Credit should also be given to the congress of the United States for the act which was passed July 2, 1862, under the enlightened leadership of the Hon. Justin S. Morrill of Vermont, making generous provision for the establishment, in the several states, of colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts. Most of this provision was, it is true, devoted to the creation of agricultural schools regarding which the scope of this address does not require me to speak and, indeed, regarding which I should scarcely presume to express an opinion ; yet the part which was assigned to the promotion of the mechanic arts proved to be a most valuable and timely reenforcement of the American system of technological schools.

But no one who thoroughly believes in the mission of schools of this class can be content merely to assert that the full time had come in the economic evolution of the nation when such schools were imperatively needed for the promotion of our industries, and that the institutions thus called into being have done this, their primary work, with triumphant success. We go far beyond this and assert for these schools that they have come to form a most important part of the proper educational system of the country, and that they are to-day doing a work in the intellectual development of our people which is not surpassed, if indeed it be equaled, by that of the classical colleges. No statement less broad and strong than this would begin to do justice to the view we take of what these schools are

now doing and are in an increasing measure to do for the manhood and citizenship of the country. We believe that in the schools of applied science and technology as they are carried on to-day in the United States, involving the thorough and most scholarly study of principles directed immediately upon useful arts, and rising in their higher grades into original investigation and research, is to be found almost the perfection of education for young men. Too long have we submitted to be considered as furnishing something which is, indeed, more immediately and practically useful than a so-called liberal education, but which is, after all, less noble and fine. Too long have our schools of applied science and technology been popularly regarded as affording an inferior substitute for classical colleges to those who could not afford to go to college, then take a course in a medical or law school, and then wait for professional practice. Too long have the graduates of such schools been spoken of as though they had acquired the arts of livelihood at some sacrifice of mental development, intellectual culture and grace of life. For me, if I did not believe that the graduates of the institution over which I have the honor to preside were as well educated men in all which the term educated man implies as the average graduate of the ordinary college, I would not consent to hold my position for another day. It is true that something of form and style may be sacrificed in the earnest, direct and laborious endeavors of the student of science; but that all the essentials of intellect and character are one whit less fully or less happily achieved through such a course of study, let no man connected with such an institution for a moment concede.

That mind and manhood alike are served in a preeminent degree by the systematic study of chemistry, physics and natural history has passed beyond dispute. The haste with which the colleges themselves are throwing over many of their traditional subjects to make room for these comparatively new studies shows how general has become the appreciation of the virtue of these, when combined with laboratory methods, as means of intellectual and moral training.

I have spoken of the characteristic studies of these schools as the best of all available means of both moral and intellectual training. I believe this claim to be none too broad.

1 The sincerity of purpose and the intellectual honesty which are bred in the laboratory of chemistry and physics stand in strong contrast with the dangerous tendencies to plausibility, sophistry, casuistry and self-delusion which so insidiously beset the pursuits of metaphysics, dialectics and rhetoric according to the traditions of the

schools. Much of the training given in college in my boyhood was, it is not too much to say, directed straight upon the arts which go to make the worse appear the better reason. It was always an added feather in the cap of the young disputant that he had won a debate in a cause in which he did not believe. Surely, to an audience in these more enlightened days it is not needful to say that this is perilous practice, if, indeed, it is not always and necessarily pernicious. Even where the element of purposed and boasted self stultification was absent, there was a dangerous and a mischievous exaltation of the form above the substance of the student's work, which made it better to be brilliant than to be sound.

Contrast with this the moral and intellectual influence of the studies and exercises we are considering. The student of chemistry or physics would scarcely know how to defend a thesis which he did not himself believe. In that dangerous art he has had no practice. The only success he has hoped for has been to be right. The only failure he has had to fear was to be wrong. To be brilliant in error only heightened the failure, making it the more conspicuous and ludicrous. How wholesome to the mind and heart of the pupil is such a regiment!

2 Again, in addition to the graces of sincerity and intellectual honesty which are the proper traits of physical and natural science; altogether aside, too, from any future technical uses to which the arts or the information acquired may be put, there is great virtue as training for practical work in life, of whatever kind, in whatever sphere, to be found in the objective study of concrete things, which so largely make up the curriculum of the schools we are considering.

3 Still another advantage which we claim for the characteristic studies of the new schools is that, in a very large degree, they dispense with the system of examinations which has become the curse of modern education. The recent remarkable outburst in England from educators of every name and class against that system, justifies the strong terms I have used. It is admitted on all sides to be a problem of the greatest difficulty so to adjust the scheme of examinations that they shall not largely neutralize the good effects of sincere and straightforward study.

So far has cramming been carried in English universities, and even in our own colleges, that examinations have largely ceased to be a test of the scholar's attainments, much more of his real proficiency in his studies. Students who have a marked facility in this sort of thing acquire in time the faculty of passing creditably examinations on



matters of which they know almost absolutely nothing. By steadily cramming for a few days and nights under artful coaches, who know the professor's weaknesses and fads, a young man exceptionally expert can "get up" a subject,<sup>1</sup> of which he would be troubled the morning after examination to give an intelligible account. A special organ — the examination organ — becomes developed, which is as specific as the water-sacks attached to the stomach of a camel, intended only to carry a certain amount of refreshment over a very dry place for a very short time. Indeed, the comparison fails to do justice to its subject. The examination organ is at once as specific and as external as the pouch of a kangaroo.

From this serious difficulty schools of applied science and technology are, by the very nature of the case, largely freed. Indeed, the inapplicability of the scheme of examinations to the studies we are considering has even been made an argument against their introduction into universities. Prof. Parsons Cooke, in addressing a body of students at Harvard recently, said, "When advocating in our mother university of Cambridge in Old England the claims of scientific culture, I was pushed with an argument which had very great weight with the eminent English scholars present, and which, you will be surprised to learn, was regarded as fatal to the success of the natural science triposes then under debate. The argument was that the experimental sciences could not be made the subjects of competitive examinations."

It is not true that chemistry and physics can not be made the subject of examination after their kind; but it is true that under competent teachers of these sciences, examinations have far less of the character of a cram and far more of the character of a test of ability to do work. Moreover, in such a scheme of instruction as a whole, examinations perform a much less important part, while the daily and weekly exercises in the laboratory become continually of more and more account as a means of ascertaining the scholar's real progress. In this the schools of applied science and technology comply with the demands of modern thought in pedagogics. In no depart-

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<sup>1</sup> I would not disparage the importance, as a professional accomplishment, of the ability to "get up" a subject in a very short time under high pressure. A lawyer has often occasion to do this very thing. But this is a professional accomplishment and should be acquired as such. The period of professional study is not too late for the acquirement of this faculty. It can even be acquired later still, in the course of professional work. Such practice, however, in my judgment, forms no part of general education and training, and is only vicious and mischievous in the culture stage.





in the laboratory of chemistry, physics or mechanics is such as to cause a continuous, insensible discharge of the electricity generated by the necessarily strict requirements of study and discipline, and thus to maintain the friendly relations of teacher and pupil unbroken by those storms which sometimes gather and burst in colleges where the teacher sits buttoned-up on a platform behind his desk and lectures to his pupils from the chair of authority.

But it may be said: Considering all that may be claimed for the purely educational advantages of the scientific studies which run through the curriculum of the technological schools, why may not all these advantages be equally obtained by the student of the traditional college and even to better effect, since there he may secure the pure gold of truth freed from the alloy of baser metal? By which term the critic would designate the useful, practical applications of science. It is here that it behooves us to take issue most directly and aggressively with those who assert for the old-fashioned colleges an educational virtue superior to that of the schools we represent. It is of the very essence of our case that the directness and immediateness of application to which the studies of our pupils are subject, under their very eyes and at their very hands, constitutes a tremendous educational force, securing a closeness and continuity of attention on the part of the pupil, an earnestness of effort, a zeal and enthusiasm of work which it is utterly beyond the power of the teacher of classics or philosophy to arouse, except in the case of gifted students. If proof of this upon a large scale be needed, it is enough to refer to the well-known fact that law schools and medical schools invariably command the energies of their pupils in a far higher degree than do the colleges; and that hosts of young men who have idled and dawdled away the four years nominally devoted to classics and philosophy throw themselves with splendid enthusiasm into their professional studies when once they, for the first time, see on what ends their efforts are directed and how their energy and application are to promote their happiness and usefulness in life.

Even in the case of those young men who need no such incentive to secure their faithful attention and earnest endeavor, we yet hold that schools of applied science and technology possess a distinct advantage, in that their students learn the truths of science in a somewhat different way and as the result, know them somewhat better than do those who study these truths, no matter how diligently, without immediate, direct and constant reference to their application. Without referring further at this point to the limita-

and defects inherent in all academic systems of recitation and examination, I believe it to be true that the man who in studying mathematics, for example, has only to look forward to a recitation tomorrow and an examination two weeks or two months hence, applies himself to the subject necessarily in a different spirit and is necessarily with an inferior result in contrast with the man who continually as he acquires his mathematics, puts it to use day by day in the laboratory of physics, mechanics, hydraulics or steam engineering.

For these reasons we must decline to accept the characterization of the technical applications of science as the alloy which debases the pure gold of truth. We look upon them, the rather, as the tough, elastic bow which sends the keen shaft to its mark; and, be it remembered, zeal and enthusiasm of work are not to be valued merely because, or merely as, they secure directness of attention, continuity of application and sustained endeavor. In themselves, of themselves they are in a high sense an educational force, telling immediately and telling powerfully upon intellect and character, contributing importantly to build up mental and moral substance firmly and healthily.

There is one school in the United States mainly devoted to the application of scientific principles to a professional art which is so well known to all our people, and whose work in the development of mind and manhood has been so severely tested in the sight of the country and of the whole world, that I can not forbear to allude to it here. I mean the Military academy at West Point. There is no reason to believe that for the 30 years preceding the civil war the young men who went to that school were in any degree superior to those who entered Yale or Harvard. Indeed, there was at that time, at least throughout the north, a certain disinclination on the part of the more generous and ambitious of our youth to adopt the career of arms. Yet when the war broke out, what a wealth of intellect and character was displayed by the graduates of that one small school during the terrific trial to which they were instantly and without preparation subjected? Think how many men from that single academy, which had fewer living graduates than either Amherst or Williams, led army corps and armies with distinction on the one side or the other, in what was perhaps the greatest war of modern history! I said "of intellect and character," for it is character more than intellect which enables the commander to bear the responsibilities and burdens of his office.

What was it which, out of those few small classes of raw lads, developed a Grant, a Lee, a Sherman, a Meade, a Jackson, a Thomas, the two Johnstons, a Hancock, a Reno, a Reynolds and a Sheridan, not to mention scores of others who "waxed valiant in fight" and commanded divisions and corps with a skill and address which have excited the admiration of the professional soldiers of Europe? Doubtless in some part it was the romance and the highly stimulating influences of the military career. Doubtless in part also it was the special inspiration of the tremendous occasion, fraught as that was with the destinies of a continent. But I believe it, in still greater part, to have been the perfectly natural effect of the application of perhaps not extraordinary powers to the thorough, patient, unremitting study of scientific principles, directed straight upon a worthy profession, under the tuition and guidance of renowned masters of that art, and under the constant influence of professional ideas, professional sentiments and great professional examples.

A great deal more might be said in comparison of the influence of scientific teaching as carried on in the schools of applied science and technology with the influence of the traditional, or of the more modern, modified curriculum of the classical colleges; but perhaps enough has been said to justify the assertion that the former class of institutions are just as truly educational as the latter. Here I am content to rest my case. This conceded, let the youth of the land seek the one or the other kind of school, according to their individual tastes, predilections and plans for life. I am far from being so bigoted as to suggest that there is not room enough in the educational system of the future for all the institutions of the elder type which have achieved for themselves a name in letters and philosophy; which have, with pains inexpressible, wrought out their own problems and created their own constituencies; and each of which has a host of eager, devoted alumni ever turning gratefully to the halls in which they were nurtured and delighting to give to the old college the fruit of their labors and the fruit of their loins. But I confidently look to see a largely disproportionate number of the new institutions which shall from time to time come into being built essentially upon the plan which has achieved such prodigious successes during the quarter century now closing. Doubtless the present general scheme of the schools of technology will itself undergo considerable modification, alike from the results of added experience, from larger means and from the infusion of a wiser and more generous spirit. Doubtless more of economic, historical and philosophical studies will be



country ; but the great tract that lies between them receives comparatively little. While the state gives so nobly to the public school system, while individuals give such enormous sums for advanced education, we hear of very little given to the high school, to the academy, to the intermediate college. In fact it is very much like a tree, we will say, in which the roots are strong and in which there is great growth at the top, but in which the connecting trunk is likely to grow more and more attenuated. The question is, how shall the various parts of this system be so coordinated, be so arranged that the results shall be what is desired ? That the results are not quite what they ought to be I think we shall all agree.

Those of us who are connected with universities are often called upon to wonder, when young men come to us at 18 years or over, what in the world they have been doing all these years ; for even though the entrance examination be an examination purely for a technical course, we find that too often the simple English branches in all these years have not received anything like the attention which a really well-ordered system of intermediate education demands. I would not for a moment cast any slur on those engaged in intermediate education ; no men are held by me in higher respect, but they labor under enormous difficulties. Their high schools, their academies are generally carried on with small funds, funds doled out to them so that they are totally unable to command or to retain the sort of men they ought to have. There is no opportunity to hold the students in those small sections which are not generally required in university instruction, but which are so necessary in intermediate training. There is the problem that confronts us. I have certain ideas, if there were time to express them, as to what could be done. What I would propose would be more in the nature of evolution than of revolution, for there is a very marked process of evolution, especially in the higher education of this country now going on. You have only to look at the last reports of the various colleges and universities of the United States to see what that is. For instance, look at the last report of the Bureau of Education. It gives us in round numbers about 400 colleges and universities. If you begin to study these you discover the most enormous discrepancies between those institutions which, if you look at their catalogues and registers, you would never dream of. For example, all their catalogues will tell you that they teach physics, that they teach chemistry, that they teach the classics, that they teach natural sciences, that they have libraries ; but, in the first place, if you add their endowments, you will see an immense

difference in the plan and mode of carrying on the instruction. Harvard college is now rapidly approaching \$1,000,000 income each year; Columbia college is not likely to be long behind; Cornell and Johns Hopkins are beyond the half million limit. You go to the other extreme and you find various degrees of instruction in institutions which claim to be teaching the same things, with a total expenditure of \$5,000, \$10,000 and \$15,000 a year, sums which these other institutions put into a single piece of apparatus, sums which they put into the carrying on of their library alone. It costs Cornell university to-day to carry on its library more than the endowment of the great majority of American colleges. I speak of that case because I know it, but there are many others of the same sort. How is there to be any proper coordination between all these colleges, whether called universities or not, in teaching the things which they propose.

Now, Mr Chancellor. I will indicate very briefly that point in this process of development which it seems to me we ought to do our best to accelerate. It is clear that these institutions for higher instruction are growing apart. Take for example, the department of philosophy; two endowments were given the other day to the university with which I am connected of \$260,000 for the department of psychology. These endowments involve not merely professors, lecturers and all the rest of it, but a library for psychical research. The same is true of library work of various sorts, of laboratory work of the various sorts, and of economy. And now to my point, which I should like to see discussed specially by those who come after me. What I would propose is that, while as much as possible be done to develop higher university instruction, attention should be called in all ways possible to the needs of intermediate instruction. I think we may well call on the state of New York, now that so much has been done for universities, for common schools, for technical schools, to do something for this link, which is almost the missing link.

Then I would suggest another thing and I trust that my suggestion will not be misconstrued. The question is often asked, and I understand that symposiums are sometimes held in some of our colleges on the question, What is to become of the small college? The smaller colleges of this country have a most noble record. Every one must feel deep indebtedness to them; but it is a question what is to become of the small college with small endowments, between the public school system and the university system of the Unit-



States. Now what I would suggest is that these colleges frankly accept the situation and become intermediate colleges in a system properly coordinated from the public schools to the universities. They would supply, and supply nobly, the missing link.

As to the universities, I would go on with the progress in eliminating the two lower classes of the university. I would give those to the colleges. I would get rid of the enormous freshman and sophomore classes, who are really preparing for advanced instruction. I would give them to the colleges and I would devote the universities to a higher general and professional instruction and nothing else, that is to instruction and to research. There is a special reason for this. To do it however involves one thing which will at first probably create opposition. I think that the colleges in order to do that should revise their requirements and begin earlier than they do now, with a modicum of mathematics and with very little, if any, classics. I mean by that, that they should begin at the beginning of classical instruction, at any rate end with what the universities of this country require at the beginning of their schedule. Then I would have them continue their four years course as now, and the great thing which would be gained is that the training would be vastly better than it can be now. We could give this training in smaller classes to smaller bodies of men.

What is the trouble now with the graduation of men from our higher institutions of learning? We have all felt it. The age of admission to our universities has been advanced until it now reaches  $18\frac{1}{2}$  to almost 19 years in some cases. It is well over 18 at Cornell, at the average. That means graduation at 22. I believe that by such a system as I have indicated you would diminish this age. There is no reason why, with our public schools what they should be, young men should not enter intermediate colleges as men used to do at 12 or 13 years of age. There is no reason why men should not be graduated from our universities at 20, for I would include in the university study, as optional, a certain amount of professional study. I would do what the great universities of the old world are doing, I would give opportunities for advanced instruction through the entire university course. I would also have courses in which the last two or three years should be devoted to professional instruction, mingled with a certain amount of general and disciplinary instruction.

I am well aware that there will be objections made to this. It will be said that it will embarrass and create opposition on the part of

the colleges. I think not. They will gain in position, in number of students, in revenue. It will be said that various religious bodies which have founded universities and colleges do not wish to let go their hold on advanced instruction. There is a point we may well think of: yet who cares whether his son goes to an episcopal law school or to a baptist technical school? The question is, where can he get the best advanced instruction, in view of his profession in life. It is in the intermediate colleges that the moral training is given. The influence on the young men of the last generation which so obtained for good in England was not given in the universities. Who knows who the heads of the various colleges at Oxford and Cambridge were at the beginning of the century? But we know who was at the head of Eton, who were at the head of the other great schools, and it is well known that the moral training given to that generation was given most largely in those intermediate colleges.

Then there is another point. It is said that it will be too much of a stepping down on the part of presidents of institutions called universities to become presidents of intermediate colleges. Now I would infinitely rather be the president of a fairly endowed intermediate college, with a body of students whom I know, whom I can influence, doing a work which I can see is to tell on the future of the country, than to pretend to be doing university work which I know in my soul I can not do. There is something painfully small in sending forth statements through the country that one is prepared to give instruction which he knows perfectly well he is not prepared to give. Then there is something which places the instructor in a very awkward position in regard to his students. Students are a quick witted body of men. They see more than they are supposed to, and there is nothing that will do the authorities of a college or university more harm, which will do more to lower them in the opinion of their students, than a feeling among the students that there is sham in the announcement of the college or the university. I do not impeach the colleges of this state, but there are colleges in this country where announcements are made which are not and can not be verified. But every one of these colleges can do most noble intermediate work.

Then as to the universities. It would enable them to devote their plant to advanced instruction, to research. I would have, if you please, an evolution between colleges and universities that become intermediate and those which by virtue of their endowments take the position of higher universities. I believe that this is a



system that can be and indeed will be carried out. I am no Utopian, but this is a process which is going on. I think it is our duty in our various positions so far as possible to aid in this evolution, to aid in establishing colleges for intermediate work. I do not care how much a man gives to an intermediate college, but unless he is prepared to give it such a sum as will fit it for advanced instruction, let him keep it at the work of the intermediate college, and the result would be that we should have a system properly coordinated: the high school at the base, as the roots from which the whole system draws its nutriment; then the whole upper system, branching out in various branches of university instruction, then the intermediate colleges, the trunk connecting the roots and branches. I trust that those who come after me will not feel that I have been belittling the position of the intermediate colleges.

One word more. I believe that a position at the head of a well conducted intermediate college would be recognized before long as higher than the headship of the universities. This is the fact already in the mother country. Here is one proof of it. It is a curious fact that a great majority of the men prominent in the house of lords are taken from the intermediate schools.

**Chancellor H: M. MacCracken**—I agree with President White in asserting the need of better coordination of academy, college and university. But I am reminded by his plan for meeting this need of King Solomon's plan for satisfying the two mothers. He proposed to divide the living child in twain, and give each claimant one-half. President White proposes to divide that living entity, the American college in halves, and give the senior and junior classes to the future university, which he thinks is claiming this, and the sophomore and freshman half to the academy, which I am sure is not claiming or wanting any such division. But the wise Solomon did not really mean to divide the child. He was only seeking a solution of a difficult question. I fancy that President White is like Solomon in that his great object after all is simply to stir us to work out this problem of coordination. The title given us by our program recognizes these three successive schools, the academy, the college, the university. The first two are well defined; the third is just beginning to rise into conspicuity. America differs from England and Germany in that she has *three* schools instead of two to care for students pursuing higher studies. England sends a boy to Eton or Rugby for long years and

thence to Oxford or Cambridge. Germany sends for nine years to the gymnasium and afterwards to the university. We have providentially three stages of study instead of two. We have grown up to it for a century. Why not keep this American product, the four years college course, between academy and university? By university I mean all that is included in professional study, higher technological training, and especially graduate or advanced courses in arts and philosophy. I would give one or two years more than President White would allow for the completion of the full work. Let the student spend from his 12th to his 16th year in preparatory studies above the primary grade, from his 16th to his 20th year in college. Then he can complete university and professional work by the time he is 22 or 23. America is growing richer than any other land. She will give her people more leisure for study than any other land. Why should she not provide for her youth continuing in study a year or two longer than any other land?

There remains none the less need for careful coordination. In order to this I would settle who shall undertake to coordinate. Not the state. It can not accomplish it. But the colleges and academies of New York themselves can achieve it by voluntary compact. We see great trunk-line corporations forming agreements which I believe are generally kept, though not always; if they with so much more of antagonistic interests can make strong compacts, why can not we? In making this compact I would take off the academies a load which has been slowly accumulating upon them. It amounts to one year or more of work which ought to be done by the college. Read the plan of academy work presented this year by the regents. They ask a student beginning Latin to finish in three years all the requirements for classical freshmen, beside a number of outside studies. It is an impossibility for an average youth to do this well. I allow my boys at least five years for the task, in order to thorough preparation. Let us relieve the academies by taking back into the freshman college year, Homer and Cicero, and more of Greek and Latin composition, and let the boy enter by 15 or 16 years of age. Then at 19 or 20 he can begin graduate studies. [*Gavel fell.*]

**Prof. E. H. Griffin, Johns Hopkins university** — It seems to me that the question raised by President White is one of absolute importance. As I understand it, it affects the classification which we have been accustomed to make of our educational institutions. We have recognized the academy and secondary school as giving that

essential, fundamental knowledge which every reputable citizen needs to have, and the colleges as giving what we have been accustomed to call a liberal education, and the university as adding a specialized instruction. The question is whether we are prepared to eliminate these secondary schools.

It seems to me that in a democratic country it is of the utmost importance that we should give such a general view of the great outlines of knowledge to all our citizens who have the intellectual capacity to receive it as will prepare them to take large and generous and historic views of public questions and public enterprises. Now suppose we do hand over the first two years of our colleges to our preparatory schools? Certainly we must expect a very large proportion of those who might well go further in their education to stop with that institution. The question would be then, are these persons liberally educated? Have we not subtracted from the body of liberally educated men who shall pass into a professional and political life? What is it that produces these vast endowments? Is it not true that the men who have gone out and accumulated these large fortunes are the persons who have received such a measure of liberal education and training as to cause them to understand and appreciate its importance. Supposing we say to the man in the future, you shall get no further than sophomore year in a college; you shall have no instruction in philosophy, you shall get none of those broad and liberalized views. It seems to me that we shall find a foundation of dispiritedness and we shall find far less intelligence.

There are various things which I should like to say on that point; but let me pass to this question: Is it practical to retain the traditional American college and have the three systems of educational processes? It seems to me that it is, and that what should be done has been already intimated by Chancellor MacCracken. In the first place, let us admit students to our colleges at the age of 16 or 17. This may be done by diminishing the standard of admission. It is really unimportant that the student should read so much Latin or Greek. I am confident that we could admit students at the age of 16 or 17 years. Suppose, however, they are 20 or 24? What hinders them from going on to a three or four years course of technical study? In that case, of course, the college should rigorously confine itself to undergraduate work. It is a most serious fault that so many of our colleges are attempting to push their courses of instruction up to university methods and university ideas. Let the college absolutely restrict itself to the methods of undergraduate teaching, and

that whether the course shall be for a three or four years strikes me as a somewhat immaterial question. Let college instruction be planned out on the basis of years, not on the basis of week assembly appointments. Let a certain number of courses of study lead to the bachelor's degree. The more able and industrious and over-learned men may take the degree in three years. Those that need four years should take four years. Out of the students that we number at the age of 18 or 19 there will be a certain proportion of them who will finish at 19 or 20. No one will say that it is unreasonable that a young man graduating from college at that age should go on to university study.

**Prof Francis H. Stoddard** — It is perhaps possible that something resembling my remark has established itself in the mind of the audience at that hall in the endeavor to form a notion of the present state and future state of the university system: for we learn such startling things concerning universities. In the afternoon of yesterday we learned that until five years ago, there was distinct tendency away from liberality, away from morality, away from zeal, in the universities: but that there was now a prospect of regeneration by education. In the evening we learned that there was, likewise, in the colleges a tendency away from earnestness, sincerity and intellectual honesty: but that there was a prospect of regeneration by technology. To-day we learn that the university methods are perfect: but that the results in the universities would be better than they are, if only the academies and secondary schools were better than they are. Some universities propose, therefore, having themselves attained, to become even more perfect by renunciation; for we learn this morning that Cornell university, having become rich, proposes to retire in part from the trade of teaching, and to send away her two largest classes to study in institutions not so excessively and inconveniently endowed.

From all this we gain the idea that something less than satisfaction with the universities is the attitude of scholars. The system somehow is not quite right. Two years are lost, by the boy, said the speaker last evening; perhaps because of the time given to examinations, he suggested. Now many of us do not agree that time given to examinations is time lost, for many of us owe our first certainty of ability to stand trial to the strain and stress of a rigid examination. It developed an emergency organ (like a third stomach, said the speaker) and a very useful organ it has proved to us. A

third stomach is a handy thing sometimes in the dry times of life, and the man with it sometimes stays while the men without it drop by the way. This particular remedy of solution by exclusion of a single factor we perhaps reject; and yet, if we reject all the suggested remedies, we still accept the fact of incomplete coordination between academy and college, and we ask how a more perfect coordination may be had.

For coordination we must have. The tendency of the age is toward it. It may be said almost with absoluteness that the university, in the elder sense of the term — as a spot in which men, separated from the world, may become isolated and special monuments of culture — is ceasing to exist. The university no longer lives to itself. It must be a part of a system. If not metropolitan in situation, as it probably should be, it must be cosmopolitan in thought. Coordinated effort, in the highest and in the lowest fields, in the ball team and in the university, has become a necessity. The result, if not the aim, of the elder university, was to separate the man of thought from the man of action. The man did his work and separately thought his thoughts; and the scholar, as interested in that which he was thinking, held himself apart from the man of action interested in that which he was doing. But the modern university makes life to beget life and keeps in touch with every form of activity. It has ceased to be a cloister and has become a workshop. It appears then, that between the academy, the college, the university and the professional school there is somewhere a prodigious waste of force. The boy loses two years, said the speaker last evening. The boy must get to college earlier, says the college president; he does not know enough when he gets there to account for the time spent on the road. Likewise the university, in the interest of its graduate courses, calls out to the college to shorten its course; there is waste somewhere, it, in effect, says: the boy ought to do his undergraduate work in three years. The university is hardly needed at all, says the technologist; there is waste of force in the college years. In general it may, I think, be admitted that these various cries are indicative of a real area of distress and call for a remedy.

In looking for a remedy, it is fair to note the manner in which this same problem has been treated by the men of action. The result desired is economy. The problem is the problem of conservation of wasted force. The remedy is to obtain articulation rather than coordination, concentration rather than exclusion. Now in manufacturing it was only lately discovered that economy of force was





discrepancy between the commencement and the work which followed. I was not altogether in accord with the inference that he desired to have drawn. That which is a sham in education is not so because of a lack of articulation, it is a lack of something else. When a small college advertises that it teaches physics it does not need a \$15,000 piece of apparatus in order to carry out that announcement. We can teach a little physics and teach it very well. The difficulty that "a little learning is a dangerous thing" is that it is a little learned a little. If you take one book and know it all through and through, if you have one good truth and live by it, then you will have accomplished the work of a man before you get through. When a college says that it teaches a certain subject, it would be eminently proper to particularize the limits within which the subject was taught and then teach within those limits. There is a great deal of sham in not stating just what we do.

I looked over the reports of the various colleges with a desire to find out how much mathematics were required in a classical course. I have not been able to find out from the catalogues, and I can not tell how much algebra and geometry to teach my boys, and therefore I am going to teach them what I think they should carry away with them. They give me in a college course 11 weeks, four hours a week, to teach higher algebra. Algebra can not be taught in 11 weeks with four hours a week. I can pick out the beginning of certain subjects, I can educate boys that have brains, I can open the doors and point them to it; they may follow it all their lives long and there will be higher algebra before them still.

I am heartily in accord with the view expressed by Chancellor MacCracken. I believe that the evolution is to be of an American system of education. We do not want any gymnasiums here, we do not need them. We may have been crude; but it takes more than 115 years of America to make a people with character and institutions.

I would willingly send a certificate to Cornell if they would plan the beginning of their course where we can properly end ours.

The American university is coming. Whether it be under the elms of Yale, whether in the limits of Cambridge, east or west, wherever it is, the American university will come. The American college is here to stay. It will prepare men for the scholastic work of the university and the actual work of business life. The American academy is here to stay; it will fit men for the lower walks of life and prepare them for the colleges. They are here as much as

The common school is here to give the primary education that begets our American citizenship.

Discussions will tend as it is with ourselves. Work will have to be done, not in the process of joining the ears and the tail and making a college that will come by the growth of years and will keep those it is who belong to the poor colleges out in the country leads to understand each other and ourselves and to do our work better.

**Prof. Richard S. Kayser** — I want to say a word in this subject from the standpoint of the public school. About 80 per cent of the secondary schools under instruction of the Regents belong to our public school system. The more than a generation of years have been seeing up schools with special purpose view to pupils for college, but they have not succeeded in getting them. The public high and union schools meet the wants of the time and will only be changed as the conditions which produce them change. When education was the privilege of the few, the universities must do the work which was done in the schools now, but they can not do this when education has become a requirement for the many. The great educational work of our time is being done in the schools. The work of the public secondary school must be adapted to a time which will be of value to pupils who are soon to enter upon the active duties of life. It is not the college men to say that pupils should study in college certain things when the great necessity of education in the public schools is for them to learn certain other things. It is true that a young man can go to college in the same way with a heavy amount of Latin, Greek, French or German or these subjects are considered sufficient, but it is said to say that to measure it against the college requirements or standards of college authorities will tend to make these languages studies of study in the great majority of our common schools. It is sometimes in general educational opinion should the college to say what must be done in the secondary schools. As the requirements for admission to college have been gradually raised, the authorities in charge of the department of colleges which is what the secondary schools have the greatest difficulty in meeting it. Their secondary courses seem to be so high, raising the first question that our system of education.

The college seem to have forgotten the purpose of engineering by addressing the almost no secondary education as a necessity.



for those students. The work of the secondary school is a work which must be done for all pupils, and so long as possible it is important that the work of the secondary schools be kept together.

The colleges have also injured the work of the secondary schools and injured themselves by not agreeing on entirely uniform requirements for admission. There is hardly a college in this state that does not contain among its requirements for admission certain subjects not required by other colleges. A young man goes to his instructor at the end of his academic course and says "I am going to college and find that I must study up this subject. What is the very least I can do to meet the requirements?" The college which puts in its requirements for admission subjects not required by other colleges, advertises for pupils poorly prepared in those subjects and must take its choice between pupils poorly prepared and none at all. If the classical course is to be popular, our pupils must be prepared for it in our union and high schools. In order properly to suit the conditions of these schools not more than three years can be given to the preparatory work in languages. About a year ago the regents took the bull by the horns as regards this course and laid out a new college entrance course, lessening the amount of Latin and adding several other subjects, better to suit the conditions of the schools. I have yet to learn that this course has been adopted in its entirety by a single college in the state. We have the anomaly of the University of the State of New York laying out a course for admission to the colleges and the colleges practically rejecting it.

In order to coordinate properly the work of the college and the secondary school, the college must cease to do work which legitimately belongs to the secondary school. A pupil who is preparing for the non-classical course needs the discipline and care of the school just as much as the pupil who is preparing for the classical course. As matters are at present, a large number of well prepared students in our secondary schools are entirely lost to college. When a young man has completed a course in a union or high school and wakes up to the fact that a higher education would be a good thing for him, he can find no course for which his preparation fits him. It seems to me that if the colleges want to profit by the work which the secondary schools are doing now, they should have more regard for the limitation of the work which we now have to do.

**Sec'y Dewey** — The gentleman says that he does not know of a college that accepts the new college entrance diploma. Does he know

of any that refuse to accept it? Of course it is desirable for the colleges to print in their catalogues this fact of acceptance, and I purpose asking them to do so; but I know that the majority of New York colleges are well satisfied to accept the new diploma. I hope we may announce at the next Convocation that every college in the state has adopted that as its standard.

**Prin. G : M. Smith** — With our exalted notions of liberty we demand an individual freedom in all that we do that sometimes has consequences more lasting than beneficial. Particularly is this true of education. We talk of system; we haven't any. Everybody is running his own particular hobby at his own sweet will. The college professor manages his department as he pleases. No matter what others may think or do, he is a law unto himself. The principal of the academy has caught the same disease. He has settled a lot of vexed questions for good and all, and, however the rest of the world may wag, his particular part of it must wag his own particular way; while as for the normal school man, he assisted at the birth of pedagogy and has acted as nurse ever since. To such an extent does individualism prevail that it seems hopeless even to hope for reformation. Study the courses offered by the colleges of this country. So great a variety is presented that degrees become meaningless, and an "American degree" is a source of contempt in educational circles of other lands. B. A. is an unknown quantity, and B. S. is translated by the irreverent with more truth than poetry "Big Sell."

The fit, too, for these various courses is a variable that changes without any law. For some courses it can be easily accomplished by an average pupil in six to 12 months after leaving the grammar school; in others four weary years must elapse to reach the goal. The pupil in the academy who wants to go to college and receive a degree is sure of having his wants gratified, whether he takes Greek or base ball. He can't miss it. There is some sort of a course open to him.

Not only does this particularism appear in college courses but everywhere. Two institutions may make the same claims on paper, and be very far apart in reality. An incident that came to my own knowledge well illustrates this. A boy takes two examinations in the same subjects within 10 days: no. 1 — a mortifying failure; no. 2 — a great success. Two different persons made out the papers; neither was properly made.

Right here is the weakest point of our work. From primary school to university there is no common authoritative rule as to what

the work of any grade shall be. Senior work in one institution is first year work in another, and even in the lower grades the same confusion exists. Towns lying side by side have grades very unlike, and the idiosyncrasies of the superintendent come out in glaring lights.

The teacher in the secondary school who seeks to meet the claims of all the institutions to which his pupils may choose to go, is at his wits' ends. The learned philosopher of yesterday who wanted every man once in his lifetime to cut loose from all moorings, has only to send him into a secondary school to fit for college. Metaphysical doubts will then become an alluring harbor into which he may drift with pleasure, after tossing between the Scylla and Charybdis of uncertainty as to what are the real requirements of American colleges.

The little union school or academy with two teachers has no hesitation in planning a course of study which requires the services of six. The struggling college just able to do fair academic work entices young men within its walls by a lavish bestowal of meaningless and worthless degrees. The kind of coordination most needed will be found in the establishment of standards of work by which every institution can be measured and its rank established. Then call a spade a spade, call every institution actually doing collegiate work a college, and none of inferior rank. Make the universities confine themselves to university work, and do not let any school attempt work beyond a fair estimate of the ability of its faculty and the extent of its outfit, and the question of coordination will be settled by each school taking its own place.

This whole question has arisen by schools of all grades "biting off more than they can chew." Reduce the size of the mouthful and proper mastication and digestion will easily follow.

**Prin. George D. Hale, Rochester, N. Y.**—I differ somewhat with the last speaker. In my work I make a special attempt to individualize. I try to teach the pupils one by one and take whatever material is presented, and if it is unfit to use I cast it aside at once, and if it can be made useful I take it and use it. No two can be taught exactly alike, and it is not always best to teach the same boy two successive days in the same way.

All we ask of the colleges and universities is to tell us what they want done. If they want men prepared for certain points, tell us so. They should not admit them poorly prepared. One great trouble is that a pupil runs away from a preparatory school and goes to a col-

then whether this course shall be one or three or four years strikes me as a somewhat unimportant question. Let college instruction be placed not on the basis of years, but on the basis of work actually accomplished. Let a certain number of courses of study lead to the bachelor's degree. The more able and industrious and competent men may take this degree in three years. Those that need four years should take four years. Out of the students that we admit at the age of 16 or 17 there will be a certain proportion of them who will finish at 19 or 20. No one will say that it is unreasonable that a young man graduating from college at that age should go on to university study."

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From all this we gain the idea that something less than satisfaction with the universities is the attitude of scholars. The system somehow is not quite right. Two years are lost, by the boy, said the speaker last evening; perhaps because of the time given to examinations, he suggested. Now many of us do not agree that time given to examinations is time lost, for many of us owe our first certainty of ability to stand trial to the strain and stress of a rigid examination. It developed an emergency organ (like a third stomach, said the speaker) and a very useful organ it has proved to us. A

third stomach is a handy thing sometimes in the dry times of life, and the man with it sometimes stays while the men without it drop by the way. This particular remedy of solution by exclusion of a single factor we perhaps reject; and yet, if we reject all the suggested remedies, we still accept the fact of incomplete coordination between academy and college, and we ask how a more perfect coordination may be had.

For coordination we must have. The tendency of the age is toward it. It may be said almost with absoluteness that the university, in the elder sense of the term — as a spot in which men, separated from the world, may become isolated and special monuments of culture — is ceasing to exist. The university no longer lives to itself. It must be a part of a system. If not metropolitan in situation, as it probably should be, it must be cosmopolitan in thought. Coordinated effort, in the highest and in the lowest fields, in the ball team and in the university, has become a necessity. The result, if not the aim, of the elder university, was to separate the man of thought from the man of action. The man did his work and separately thought his thoughts; and the scholar, as interested in that which he was thinking, held himself apart from the man of action interested in that which he was doing. But the modern university makes life to beget life and keeps in touch with every form of activity. It has ceased to be a cloister and has become a workshop. It appears then, that between the academy, the college, the university and the professional school there is somewhere a prodigious waste of force. The boy loses two years, said the speaker last evening. The boy must get to college earlier, says the college president; he does not know enough when he gets there to account for the time spent on the road. Likewise the university, in the interest of its graduate courses, calls out to the college to shorten its course; there is waste somewhere, it, in effect, says: the boy ought to do his undergraduate work in three years. The university is hardly needed at all, says the technologist; there is waste of force in the college years. In general it may, I think, be admitted that these various cries are indicative of a real area of distress and call for a remedy.

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best gained by concentrating the processes. In cotton manufacturing, for example, the older method and the present method in the older countries was to give exclusive attention to the special part. The manufacturing industry was in the specialization stage of development. The spinning mill, therefore, spun, but did not weave; the weaving mill wove, but did not spin; and so on. It was learned later that perfection of mechanism implies not only specialist perfection but also articulative values. So the modern cotton mill in America has its departments united. Its carding department works for itself no longer, but for the spinning department, being governed thereto by the single director. Its spinning department is no longer a self sufficient specialist, but works for the weaving department. In a word there is attained specialization of function with singleness of direction. In like manner our mercantile establishments and our railroads have taught us that the specialist is a servant and not a director, and that real economy of force is only gained by compelling the special part to lose its single life for the good of the organization. In some manner there is growth in this direction even among universities. In Germany it appears that Berlin grows faster than Halle, Jena or Göttingen, specialist institutions though these have been.

In trade, then, in business, in the whole world of action it would appear that force is being conserved by the obtainment of completeness of articulation through concentration. The remedy I would suggest for the ills of the present university system is an application of the same process. Let the university lay hands upon the college:—buy it, if possible; annex it, if purchase is impossible; lease it, if annexation is impossible; form an alliance with it, if annexation or lease is impossible. Then let the university and the college, thus united, lay hands upon the academy. Out of these elements let there be made an educational system retaining specialization of function with singleness of direction. Then would the competition be between completely articulated systems instead of between separated institutions, compelled by their isolation to fight on the defensive. We should have nationalities instead of principalities in the educational universe.

**Prof. Oren Root**—There has been so much said with which I agree and so much with which I do not agree, that I hardly know at what point to commence my brief discussion. I was in hearty accord with the notion of the first speaker when he narrated the

discrepancy between the commencement and the work which followed. I was not altogether in accord with the inference that he desired to have drawn. That which is a sham in education is not so because of a lack of articulation, it is a lack of something else. When a small college advertises that it teaches physics it does not need a \$15,000 piece of apparatus in order to carry out that announcement. We can teach a little physics and teach it very well. The difficulty that "a little learning is a dangerous thing" is that it is a little learned a little. If you take one book and know it all through and through, if you have one good truth and live by it, then you will have accomplished the work of a man before you get through. When a college says that it teaches a certain subject, it would be eminently proper to particularize the limits within which the subject was taught and then teach within those limits. There is a great deal of sham in not stating just what we do.

I looked over the reports of the various colleges with a desire to find out how much mathematics were required in a classical course. I have not been able to find out from the catalogues, and I can not tell how much algebra and geometry to teach my boys, and therefore I am going to teach them what I think they should carry away with them. They give me in a college course 11 weeks, four hours a week, to teach higher algebra. Algebra can not be taught in 11 weeks with four hours a week. I can pick out the beginning of certain subjects, I can educate boys that have brains, I can open the doors and point them to it; they may follow it all their lives long and there will be higher algebra before them still.

I am heartily in accord with the view expressed by Chancellor MacCracken. I believe that the evolution is to be of an American system of education. We do not want any gymnasiums here, we do not need them. We may have been crude; but it takes more than 115 years of America to make a people with character and institutions.

I would willingly send a certificate to Cornell if they would plan the beginning of their course where we can properly end ours.

The American university is coming. Whether it be under the elms of Yale, whether in the limits of Cambridge, east or west, wherever it is, the American university will come. The American college is here to stay. It will prepare men for the scholastic work of the university and the actual work of business life. The American academy is here to stay; it will fit men for the lower walks of life and prepare them for the colleges. They are here as much as

the common school is here, to give the primary education that belongs to our American citizenship.

Discussions will help us fit in with ourselves. Work will have to be done ; not by the process of joining the ears and the tail and making a college that way, it will come by the growth of years, and will help those of us who belong to the poor colleges out in the country fields to understand each other and ourselves and to do our work better.

**Prin. Roland S. Keyser** — I want to say a word on this subject from the standpoint of the public school. About 80 per cent of the secondary schools under visitation of the regents belong to our public school system. For more than a generation college men have been crying for schools whose special purpose was to fit pupils for college, but they have not succeeded in getting them. The public, high and union schools meet the wants of the time and will only be changed as the conditions which produce them change. When education was the privilege of the few, the universities controlled the work which was done in the schools below them, but they can not do this when education has become a requirement for the many. The great educational forces of our time lie behind the public schools. The work of the public secondary school must be largely of a kind which will be of value to pupils who are soon to enter upon the active duties of life. It is idle for college men to say that pupils should early be taught certain things when the great pressure of influence on the public schools is for them to teach certain other things. It is true that a young man can go to college at the same age with a larger amount of Latin, Greek, French or German if these subjects are commenced sufficiently early, but it is safe to say that no amount of pressure of college requirements, or influence of college authorities will avail to make these languages subjects of study in the great majority of our common schools. On no principles of general educational economy should the college do work which must be done in the secondary schools. As the requirements for admission to college have been gradually raised, the additions have almost all been in the department of languages, which is where the secondary schools have the greatest difficulty in meeting it. Their scientific courses seem to be so called because they fit so unscientifically into our scheme of education.

The colleges seem to have cheapened the profession of engineering by advertising that almost no secondary education at all is necessary

for those students. The work of the secondary school is a work which must be done for all pupils, and so long as possible it is important that the work of the secondary schools be kept together.

The colleges have also injured the work of the secondary schools and injured themselves by not agreeing on entirely uniform requirements for admission. There is hardly a college in this state that does not contain among its requirements for admission certain subjects not required by other colleges. A young man goes to his instructor at the end of his academic course and says "I am going to college and find that I must study up this subject. What is the very least I can do to meet the requirements?" The college which puts in its requirements for admission subjects not required by other colleges, advertises for pupils poorly prepared in those subjects and must take its choice between pupils poorly prepared and none at all. If the classical course is to be popular, our pupils must be prepared for it in our union and high schools. In order properly to suit the conditions of these schools not more than three years can be given to the preparatory work in languages. About a year ago the regents took the bull by the horns as regards this course and laid out a new college entrance course, lessening the amount of Latin and adding several other subjects, better to suit the conditions of the schools. I have yet to learn that this course has been adopted in its entirety by a single college in the state. We have the anomaly of the University of the State of New York laying out a course for admission to the colleges and the colleges practically rejecting it.

In order to coordinate properly the work of the college and the secondary school, the college must cease to do work which legitimately belongs to the secondary school. A pupil who is preparing for the non-classical course needs the discipline and care of the school just as much as the pupil who is preparing for the classical course. As matters are at present, a large number of well prepared students in our secondary schools are entirely lost to college. When a young man has completed a course in a union or high school and wakes up to the fact that a higher education would be a good thing for him, he can find no course for which his preparation fits him. It seems to me that if the colleges want to profit by the work which the secondary schools are doing now, they should have more regard for the limitation of the work which we now have to do.

**Sec'y Dewey** — The gentleman says that he does not know of a college that accepts the new college entrance diploma. Does he know

of any that refuse to accept it? Of course it is desirable for the colleges to print in their catalogues this fact of acceptance, and I purpose asking them to do so; but I know that the majority of New York colleges are well satisfied to accept the new diploma. I hope we may announce at the next Convocation that every college in the state has adopted that as its standard.

**Prin. G : M. Smith** — With our exalted notions of liberty we demand an individual freedom in all that we do that sometimes has consequences more lasting than beneficial. Particularly is this true of education. We talk of system; we haven't any. Everybody is running his own particular hobby at his own sweet will. The college professor manages his department as he pleases. No matter what others may think or do, he is a law unto himself. The principal of the academy has caught the same disease. He has settled a lot of vexed questions for good and all, and, however the rest of the world may wag, his particular part of it must wag his own particular way; while as for the normal school man, he assisted at the birth of pedagogy and has acted as nurse ever since. To such an extent does individualism prevail that it seems hopeless even to hope for reformation. Study the courses offered by the colleges of this country. So great a variety is presented that degrees become meaningless, and an "American degree" is a source of contempt in educational circles of other lands. B. A. is an unknown quantity, and B. S. is translated by the irreverent with more truth than poetry "Big Sell."

The fit, too, for these various courses is a variable that changes without any law. For some courses it can be easily accomplished by an average pupil in six to 12 months after leaving the grammar school; in others four weary years must elapse to reach the goal. The pupil in the academy who wants to go to college and receive a degree is sure of having his wants gratified, whether he takes Greek or base ball. He can't miss it. There is some sort of a course open to him.

Not only does this particularism appear in college courses but everywhere. Two institutions may make the same claims on paper, and be very far apart in reality. An incident that came to my own knowledge well illustrates this. A boy takes two examinations in the same subjects within 10 days: no. 1 — a mortifying failure; no. 2 — a great success. Two different persons made out the papers; neither was properly made.

Right here is the weakest point of our work. From primary school to university there is no common authoritative rule as to what

the work of any grade shall be. Senior work in one institution is first year work in another, and even in the lower grades the same confusion exists. Towns lying side by side have grades very unlike, and the idiosyncrasies of the superintendent come out in glaring lights.

The teacher in the secondary school who seeks to meet the claims of all the institutions to which his pupils may choose to go, is at his wits' ends. The learned philosopher of yesterday who wanted every man once in his lifetime to cut loose from all moorings, has only to send him into a secondary school to fit for college. Metaphysical doubts will then become an alluring harbor into which he may drift with pleasure, after tossing between the Scylla and Charybdis of uncertainty as to what are the real requirements of American colleges.

The little union school or academy with two teachers has no hesitation in planning a course of study which requires the services of six. The struggling college just able to do fair academic work entices young men within its walls by a lavish bestowal of meaningless and worthless degrees. The kind of coordination most needed will be found in the establishment of standards of work by which every institution can be measured and its rank established. Then call a spade a spade, call every institution actually doing collegiate work a college, and none of inferior rank. Make the universities confine themselves to university work, and do not let any school attempt work beyond a fair estimate of the ability of its faculty and the extent of its outfit, and the question of coordination will be settled by each school taking its own place.

This whole question has arisen by schools of all grades "biting off more than they can chew." Reduce the size of the mouthful and proper mastication and digestion will easily follow.

**Prin. George D. Hale, Rochester, N. Y.**—I differ somewhat with the last speaker. In my work I make a special attempt to individualize. I try to teach the pupils one by one and take whatever material is presented, and if it is unfit to use I cast it aside at once, and if it can be made useful I take it and use it. No two can be taught exactly alike, and it is not always best to teach the same boy two successive days in the same way.

All we ask of the colleges and universities is to tell us what they want done. If they want men prepared for certain points, tell us so. They should not admit them poorly prepared. One great trouble is that a pupil runs away from a preparatory school and goes to a col-



lege. It admits him, the boy knows he was not prepared; the college knows he was not prepared. If the colleges did not admit poorly prepared students they certainly would not have them there. It is not fair to blame the preparatory schools for the defects of individuals due to heredity or some other cause. The preparatory school can not do everything. It can not make a man who is a natural mathematician and does not like languages fond of languages. What I try to do is to develop the man in those things where he is strongest and also where he is the weakest. I never try to spoil a first class mathematician by endeavoring to make him first class in Greek. I never try to spoil a first class linguist by endeavoring to make him a first class mathematician.

These lines which we try to define are some of them imaginary lines. It is well enough to have imaginary lines in geography to measure the degrees of latitude and longitude, but some of these imaginary lines in education are of no use. Galileo could manufacture his own telescope. Franklin did not need the appliances of the big colleges to make the kite with which to draw the electric fluid from heaven. Edison began without these appliances. It is men we want. There is a president of the United States on the streets of Albany to-day barefooted, for all we know. We want to do honest work. Let the colleges clear the way, let them go ahead and tell us where they want us to go and we will follow. In some places the very endowment which the colleges have is a hindrance to the preparatory schools. It is not the fault of Cornell university, it is the fault of the law which exists. If a student prepares for West Point and he is to be admitted by competitive examination, they do not ask where he was prepared. If a man is examined for West Point and passes the best examination, he gets the prize. In our town the state gives 12 scholarships to be competed for by the students of the public schools. A student of a private school can not have them. He may be the best of all but he is debarred because he is a student of a private school.

**Prin. Harlan P. Amen, *Riverview Military academy***—In the discussion of the very subject which occupies us to-day and in urging the reforms which have since placed Germany in the foremost position in all matters educational Wm. von Humbolt said: "The thing is *not*, to let the schools and universities go on in a drowsy and indolent routine; the thing is, to raise the culture of the nation ever higher and higher by their means."



The discussion of that day brought out of a nebulous, irregular, chaotic state of things the admirable effective system that is in use in Germany and France at the present time. Can we do better than to work out, in our own way, and with the least possible loss of time, a system as thoroughly adapted to our needs? And are not our needs much the same as the German's or the Frenchman's? In the coordination and articulation of our existing educational forces, the interests of four grades of instruction should be kept in view, the interests of the primary, the academic, the collegiate, and the university grades. Along this line, by a system which adopts different methods of instruction for the different ages and needs of the students, will our educational evolution be worked out.

The primary work should end at the age of nine or 10. The secondary should begin not later than the age of 10, and should continue, at least, till the age of 18 or 19. I am well aware that, in our present system of education, our colleges are doing two years of this secondary work, and they are doing it far better than our schools and academies can do it; therefore, they should continue to do it. The colleges, on the other hand, by the largely elective work of the junior and senior years, are offering a safe and natural transition period from true secondary work to true university work. We thus have ready made for us an easy solution of the practical difficulties arising from so abrupt a change as that from the German gymnasium to the university.

Our greatest need in secondary work is that which a careful study of the best European experience will make very clear to us. We trust that this discussion will open the way to advancement, when the public is brought to see what a serious loss of time and energy is caused by our lack of uniform and continuous system of education from the primary to the professional school.

We need courses of study, designed and graduated by the best heads of the country, leading up to either the college or the schools of applied science and technology. Give us in the secondary schools such courses of study and the time in which to do the work well — the same time only which is allowed for the work in Germany and France — and, with teachers properly qualified, we will give you the same results.

And this brings me to my last point. The greatest need of the secondary schools is that of thoroughly trained, naturally qualified instructors. It is impossible to bring our work up to the point of greatest efficiency as long as teachers are employed who haven't had

both the best general and special training for their work. Mere college education is not sufficient. No one who intends to enter some other occupation, at the earliest practical moment can give either the interest or energy to the work of teaching that the profession requires. Some of our universities are offering in their graduate departments opportunities for practical work in teaching in schools, under the guidance, instruction and inspiration of their ablest men. This movement is most encouraging, and will doubtless raise the standard of teaching in the secondary schools.

**Prin. C. T. R. Smith** — The thought I would like to present to the Convocation is rather a query than a creed. For several years, in this Convocation and in our principals' association at Syracuse, we have discussed this question of coordination and articulation on very much the basis on which it has been discussed this morning, without arriving at satisfactory conclusions. Is it not possible that what we want to discuss and think about is the coordination of appliance, of subject matter in our different institutions of learning? We know that a student teacher, fresh from college, employed to teach Latin in a secondary school frequently fails because he applies to his class the method of his professor in college. He fails and is led at last to see that there is a difference in the human mind at 13 or 14 and at 20. He changes his method. He learns to teach and to interest his pupils. Do we not follow in the foot-steps of that young man to some extent? Is it not true that in many cases we are applying methods that are inappropriate to the material we have to work on? Should we not seek to coordinate our methods of instruction? We are told that in early childhood the perceptive powers are to be developed and we have a complete system of kindergarten work. Is it not true that the contrary view ought sometimes to be taken? At the commencement exercises of an important technological school in this state, a gentleman high in educational circles who has had opportunity to observe, stated that in certain institutions of technology the students were taught descriptive geometry successfully from models. That institution it seems to me was applying the methods of the primary school to the work of the technological school. It may have been a mistake. Is it not the greatest complaint that principals of secondary schools have against the excellent system of regents' examinations that is in vogue in this state, that has done so much for the elevation of scholarship in the secondary schools of this state, is it not the principal ground of complaint that

the system of examinations is not properly coordinated? The examinations in Virgil and Cicero and Cæsar seem to presuppose the same method of instruction for all these different grades of study, and indeed the examination in first year Latin is sometimes open to the same criticism. It seems to me that what we want to give our attention to is the coordination and articulation of appliances of successive years of study, the coordination of methods in teaching; the taking care that the primary school shall apply its proper method, and that the secondary school shall use the methods that are appropriate to the budding intelligence of the young men and women confided to its charge, and that the college or university shall carry on this work where it was ended by the secondary schools. It seems to me that when Pres. White, in the beginning of this discussion, advocated the enlargement of the facilities of the secondary school, that greater attention should be given to the academy and the high school, he left the work of the academy and the high school an unknown quantity in his schedule of general education, and that in providing that the work of the common school should be made what it should be, and the work of the college should begin where the work of the common school leaves off, he seems to have eliminated that quantity. The academy and high school, as has been remarked here this morning, is the product of evolution in this state, and its work should be carried on with due regard to this secondary stage of education.

**Prof. Lewis Boss** — The remarks of the last speaker have made it almost unnecessary for me to offer any contribution to this discussion, for it seems to me that the whole thing hinges on the character of the work, that is on the development of the scholar. We begin with the very simplest process of reasoning, and try to strengthen the power of the students to reason as to the combination of two or more subjects. It seems to me that in the American system of education we rather are inclined to ignore, so far as the formal publication or adoption of methods is concerned, that necessity of development of men by means of education. I think that we are spending too much time in the preparation for the higher order of thinking. It is much like the Dutchman in this state who in order to jump over a hill went back and ran some two or three miles, and when he arrived at the hill he was completely exhausted.

The position of the smaller colleges seems to be at first sight a precarious one. We must consider that they have been the outgrowth

of a public demand. All students can not be put into an intellectual strait jacket and molded on the same form, and we have no right to say that students shall get a very little instruction or a very great deal of instruction. I think that the statement of the last speaker that the fault is in the method, is practically borne out by the judgment of the public. We find here to-day a certain number of speakers complaining that the elementary schools preceding secondary education do not do their work. Then the colleges complaining that the secondary schools do not do their work. The universities replying that there is really no function for the smaller colleges.

They say that it has become almost a by-word with the able editor that the college graduate himself is not a very efficient individual. I think this arises from the fact that we keep the college men on infantile processes of reasoning; we keep them on the secondary school work; we keep them engaged in solving mental processes which involve but a single step. I believe that classical education is going to hold its own in the future. It will be relegated farther and farther back into the period of youth. When you come to teaching the sciences then you have entered into an entirely new field which is distinct in its methods, distinct in its results and involves a very distinct difference in the attempts and mental development of those who are to take it. And I believe that the greater part of the time spent on scientific work is almost absolutely thrown away. I think you will find that every man who looks at this competently will tell you pretty much the same thing.

We are complaining that the classical course of six or seven years' study of Latin is too short, and yet we say that three months in physics or three months in chemistry, or six weeks in geology is sufficient to get all the discipline that can be derived from those sciences. We must train our pupils to consecutive and long continued thinking and to grasp consecutive complex processes of thought with the idea of arriving at independent judgments.

**Prof. J. G. Schurman** — I ventured to assert yesterday that for graduate students of philosophy at any rate, a general shaking up once in their lives was a good thing, and I think all who have heard the discussions this morning will agree with me that it is good for other than graduate students in philosophy.

I think in spite of a superficial disagreement, there has been a fundamental agreement on a large variety of points which have been raised here to-day. The question is the coordination of university,

college and academy. Now it has dawned on me for the first time that this coordination is to a certain extent impossible. I have learned to-day and I concede the truth of the position that has been taken by several principals of academies, that the academies do not exist for the sake of the colleges, they exist for the sake of the people. The colleges do not exist for the sake of the universities, they exist for the large class of population who desire culture. In the nature of the case therefore, a complete coordination and articulation of institutions, each of which has chosen an individual end, that end being in no case compatible with the others in view, will, it seems to me, be impossible. I was, however, very much helped by the remarks of one principal of a high school, who suggested that if we were to have perfect coordination and articulation, it could only be by adding something to the existing machinery.

Reference was made by the learned opener of this discussion to the examples of Germany and England. In Germany fitting schools exist for the sake of the universities, for I suppose we shall all admit that the gymnasia exist in order to prepare men for the universities.

I have had some personal experience with English institutions. I happen to be a life governor of University college, which is the largest feeder of the University of London. When that institution was started, it was found necessary to provide a feeder for it; and so under the same government there exists along with the university a college school, which is perhaps the most important part of that organization. And so it has occurred to me that if we are to secure perfect coordination between the colleges and the schools — to begin with that branch of the subject — it can not be done by diverting the schools from the end which they have in view; i. e. to give the people a certain higher education than can be had in the public schools, but coordination must be obtained by founding new preparatory schools whose exclusive office it shall be to fit students for the colleges.

I believe there are none of the trustees of Colgate university here. If any institution in New York state has an opportunity to solve practically this question which is before us, so far as colleges and academies are concerned, it seems to me that it is Colgate university. A large sum of money has recently been added to its endowment for the sake of supporting an institution to be run on old-fashioned college lines. Now it seems to me that if the new president of that university would take to heart the discussions which we have had

here to-day and attempt a practical solution of it, he could do it in some such manner as this. In the first place he would put in the academy and the college the very best men that could be found for the positions. He would then advertise throughout the state of New York that here was an institution that was conducted on the old college lines. Pupils could enter the academy at 11 or 12 years of age. By 15 they would be ready to enter college. They could go through Colgate college in four years more, so that at 19 those of them who wished to engage in business could do so at that age. Those who wished to pursue university education could enter some of the large universities of the country.

I believe therefore that we can not coordinate our existing academies with the colleges without diverting them from the end for which they were instituted. It seems to me that the problem can be solved here as in Germany and England by the institution of special preparatory schools, and the wealth of this country, which to-day is flowing by hundreds of thousands into university and college funds, might flow into the academy treasuries as well.

So far as the other question is concerned, the coordination of colleges and universities, I shall scarcely venture to say a word. It seems to me that this is a question which must be handled with great delicacy, because we are solving a problem which does not exist in any other country of the world, I think we must wait partly for the healing effects of time and partly to get a little more light than we have to-day on the subject. To my mind it is not a question of coordination of colleges and universities, but the coordination of colleges and preparatory schools which must exist for the sake of preparing students for the college.

**Prof. Monroe Smith** — When anybody indicates disapproval of the method in which most of our administrative officers are appointed, he is commonly told that the existing system is "American." When anybody suggests that appointments be taken out of the hands of the politicians by means of competitive examinations, he is met with the statement that such a system is "Chinese." Similar arguments appear when we endeavor to improve our method of voting; that also is declared to be something specifically "American," and the state ballot is stigmatized as "Australian." It was such a misuse of patriotic argument, I suppose, that led Dr Johnson to speak of patriotism as the last refuge of scoundrels. Dr Johnson, who was a hot-tempered man, doubtless went too far in this general-



ization; but I think it may be safely said that the use of the patriotic appeal frequently indicates a lack of other and more logical arguments.

In such discussions as the present, it is often said that the American college is something specifically American; and it is commonly implied that because it is American, it is beyond criticism, or at least that it is incapable of improvement through any changes suggested by the experience of foreign systems. We might surely grant the premise without accepting any such conclusion. But for my part, I deny the premise. I deny that the American college is in its main lines anything specifically American. The American college stands now in a stage (or rather in several distinct stages) of an evolution through which the higher educational institutions of Europe have already passed. The higher institutions of Europe were at first distinctly preparatory schools, like the colleges first established in this country. Like our colleges, they rested upon ecclesiastical foundations, and were primarily designed to prepare their students for a course of theological study. In Europe, as the result of a long process of development, some of these schools have raised and broadened their work. They have undertaken to cover the whole field of professional study, and have occupied besides the whole field of the highest non-professional education. The work which they used to do has been thrown off upon preparatory schools. The slightest study of the evolution of the European university will show that there is nothing novel, nothing peculiarly American, about the American college, at least in its main lines. It simply represents a stage of evolution; and to ask us to pin ourselves to a stage of evolution is preposterous.

A generation ago the American college was fitting men for many other professions than the clerical, but it was still simply a fitting school for the professional schools. Hardly anything more was attempted, and there was no university in this country at all. University work was represented by scattered professional schools and a great deal of university work was not done at all. Then all the neglected subjects began to crowd themselves into the college course. The result was a total change in the character of the last years of the college, until the American college has come to be something that is partially gymnasium and partially university.

Senior year in most colleges resembles part of the philosophical faculty of a German university, both in studies covered and in methods adopted. This is why the demand that we should cut the



American college in two is a logical one. Specially logical is the demand that those colleges at least, which are capable of university work, should throw off their lower classes and devote themselves exclusively to the work of the university.

But while this course would be logical and in accordance with the whole trend of educational evolution, it does not follow that it would be expedient at the present time. Under existing conditions we need, I think, a longer evolution. We must draw the line as carefully as we can between gymnasial work and university work; but I think it a little soon to decide just which institutions can become universities; nor do I think it advisable for even the stronger colleges at present to throw off their earlier years. I think things have got to go on for a while as they are going. If the smaller colleges are absolutely unable to stand the rivalry and competition of the institutions that are able to give more advanced work, then I suppose there will be such a coordination between the colleges and the larger institutions as Dr White has outlined.

**Prin. W. E. Buntin** — I believe that the patriotic argument is not the last resort of villains. I do believe that we have or should have an American system of education. Of course it began with systems brought to us from the old country, and if we have not a new and complete operation of the American system, we at least have one in process of evolution. We suppose that each department of the school, college and university has a specific work to do and does that work. The high schools and the academies are to-day in close articulation with the grammar schools, and it does not seem to me to be an impossibility to have the schools and colleges in as close articulation. The trouble is that every college in the country wants to be a university and relegate all the drudgery of education to the lower schools. No doubt it is pleasanter for the college faculty to have to deal only with minds already highly trained, but this is not the proper work of the college. There has been a tendency for the last 10 or 15 years to throw back on the secondary schools the original work of the college, while the colleges attempt to be universities. I think we ought to take one step backward here and let the colleges resume the work proper to them.

We of the secondary schools have a definite work to do. We know that there is no more intelligent, earnest and devoted body of men in any vocation of life than are the men who constitute the faculties of our various colleges. I only plead that they shall do the

proper work of the college and not expect of us more than we can do. I protest against throwing so much work on the secondary schools.

We ought to have an American system of education. Our resources are too vast for us to be dependent in any particular on any country on the face of the globe. Certainly we ought not to be dependent on Germany or France or England for any part of our education. We have the means to make our educational system complete. We have the wealth, we have the libraries, — with the exception, perhaps, of musty old manuscripts, — and certainly the American brain is not inferior to the European. We lack the element of time, but this does not present any insurmountable obstacle. What we need, I believe, is that this great nation with its vast resources should furnish every facility to its scholars for pursuing the highest investigation, just as it can easily do. And then I think we need a stronger Americanism among the scholars themselves. It is "English, you know," to study abroad, and perhaps it is still necessary; but this necessity should soon disappear. I hope the time will soon come when there shall be no subject so abstruse, no force of nature so hidden that it can not be investigated by American scholars in American colleges and universities.

**Prin. H: P. Warren, *Albany academy*** — The preparatory education of a child may be divided into three periods of four years each. The first period, — the primary stage, — should complete the mastery of the elements of number and of English. This should precede the study of foreign languages. A bright, earnest boy can accomplish this at 10, the average boy at 11, the slow boy at 12.

The next four years is the lost period in the school life of the American boy who is to have a liberal education. It is given as a rule to geography, history, grammar and arithmetic, studies of which a good knowledge can be gained incidentally if a more rational source of study is pursued during that period. In place of these utilitarian studies we propose that his time should be devoted to Latin, French and German (conversational work and exercises for the most part) number and simple applications of the same, inventional geometry and simple English classics. For recreation teach the elements of the sciences inductively, geography and history.

The third and last period should include the critical study of the grammar of the ancient languages, French and German, a large translation of the same, a thorough course in physics and chemistry

and the usual course in pure mathematics as far as calculus. Such a course would prepare a bright boy for admission to the junior class at Yale college at 18.

The advantages of such a course are :

1 It is a natural and logical order. The study of language would monopolize the time of a boy. Forms, inflectional and idiomatic, and pronunciation, the drudgery of language, are mastered with delight in boyhood when the eye is keen and the ear accurate; the study of structure or grammar naturally follows; later, a large and critical translation.

Mathematics are kept in the background. Inventional geometry and number, with simple applications, have a minor place in the course until the mind can grasp algebra and the intricacies of geometry; their study may then be pursued intelligently and rapidly. Science is taught inductively at first; later, a knowledge is gained of its mathematics.

2 Preparatory work should be finished where it is begun, in the preparatory schools and not divided between the school and the colleges. The first two years in most colleges is a pitiful waste of time for students well prepared, and a pitiful scramble after the unattainable for those ill prepared. All subjects taught primarily for their value as discipline should be taught by masters selected for their ability to teach; forms, things, facts, principles, should be mastered in the preparatory school; investigation, comparison, generalization, is the work of the higher school, call it college or university.

The eastern colleges have made their work for the last two years substantially elective; they await a movement all along the line in the preparatory schools, to make elective the work of the first two years.

3 There is a saving of two years in time in the education of a boy. This is a matter of importance but of less value than the other considerations.

In brief, the American boy runs to waste between 10 and 14; he is engaged in work that is no part of a liberal education. The training I suggest uses economically and intellectually that period. It but follows substantially the course pursued with such marked success by nations which lead in education.

**Pres. G. Stanley Hall** — I certainly have no solution of this problem, and my only excuse for taking even three minutes of the time of the Convocation is this: I am one of a number of gentlemen

who are at present engaged in an attempt at a practical solution of a part of this problem by the method which has been mentioned here. I believe that the true university should consider all the parts of an educational system. We are not interested in an attempt to find the two lost years in the grammar schools or the academies on the part of college men and university men, nor in the attempt to reproach the colleges with the waste of time on the part of the grammar school masters. We believe that there is at present a state of great disorder in our American system and that the fault of it lies at the doors of all of us alike; and we welcome this discussion because it means that the whole area is to be dug over, with a better frontage as the result.

Our pedagogic department in the university we recognize to be very extensive; and now experimental psychology has been established to have just as strong and scientific features as any in the field, we believe it should have its libraries. We are beginning to try to show how in the schools under our own control the two lost years can be saved. We are trying to make a program. In Germany and France they have men whose sole duty is to look after the program. But it is a laborious work to get out this program, and I do not expect that we shall have anything to report for many years. We are beginning at the bottom and we hope, if we are sustained and supported in the work, that when we come to the higher grades we shall have a scheme which will illustrate this program, which is so practical elsewhere.

I think that, after a great deal of experimentation, working over the material, doing what text-book makers are doing, and specially by working from the top downward and bringing to bear all the wisdom of the top at the bottom, we have at least as fair a prospect of success in science as in any field. This is an experimental problem in science and has been in operation nearly two years.

**Pres. Seth Low**—Columbia would be singularly false to her own history and to the name she bears if any one can suppose she is un-American or is seeking to build up in New York city a European system of education. It would be a strange thing if the oldest university in this state, located in the metropolis of the country, should be unconscious of the splendid life-beat of this Union stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific; but it would be no less strange if, with our eyes looking out upon this ocean we should forget that the waters that wash the shores of America also wash populous lands on the further beaches. We should be forgetting that Hamilton grad-

uated from our halls if, in the effort to solve the educational problems of our time, we should say that, because the United States of America touches the Atlantic and the Pacific, the great lakes and the Gulf of Mexico, we need not concern ourselves with what experience has taught men beyond those great sheets of water. Columbia asks you to remember that the American college in its present condition is not the finality to-day more than it has been, yet I share the feeling of my friend from Rondout that when the great result is reached it will be an American system that will be developed on our soil. I think the great difference between Canada and the United States, for example, lies just in this: that the root of Canadian life is fed by tendrils that run under the sea until they reach the mother soil; but the roots of American life are in the soil beneath our feet, and we need not concern ourselves with the fear that our system of education will be other than American.

Columbia is unfortunate at the moment in having at its head one who is a student and not a master of education, and therefore I can hardly speak on this great theme along the line which others have pursued. I thought that the suggestion which Prof. Schurman made was an interesting one, that to a certain extent the different parts of the educational line are aiming at different things and therefore the articulation is imperfect. How true that is, is illustrated by our experience at Columbia. I think we get absolutely no students into our freshman class from public schools outside of New York city.

I made an investigation some time ago and found that there was a gap of a year to a year and a half between those who graduated from our public schools and those who entered Columbia. You know that at the College of the City of New York they have had to resort to a sub-freshman year, and even then the students are not ready for the freshman class of Columbia. We have students, but they are supplied by the private schools, the fitting schools, that have grown up to meet that particular demand, and so far they illustrate precisely what Prof. Schurman spoke of. The other day we had occasion to review the question of the demands to be made for entrance to Columbia. What did we do? We called together the schoolmasters of New York who conduct these fitting schools and we made up our new conditions in consultation with them. If we are ever to get articulation out of the chaos that has been indicated to-day it is going to be brought about through cooperation. Such a discussion as this to-day is the first step, but it ought not to stop with discussion.

We ought very seriously to consider whether it is not possible to ally our colleges to our public school system more closely. That sort of a question, I think, this University of the State of New York gives us a unique opportunity to study. It can only be studied profitably and to advantage by the regents of the University calling into consultation with them those who represent the different grades of education in the state. I understand that the regents have under consideration some sort of scheme of examinations for degrees. Columbia was not consulted as to whether it was wise. Perhaps other colleges and universities in the state have been more fortunate. If the system is adopted I hope, before it has been put into operation, those whose work is to be affected by it will be consulted, so that we shall have not a new complication added to the chaos which already exists. It seems to me that here in New York we have a unique opportunity to study this question and, if it is solvable, to solve it. Michigan has done it because it began at a later period in the world's history and has taken the higher education as well as the lower under the care and control of the state; but we are dealing with an institution that is very complicated. Yet in New York state we have an official body of regents who can command the cooperation of university, academy, college and school, and yet I think that this Convocation would be almost profitless if confined to talk; but when committees are organized to study the different phases of this question, representing all the different institutions engaged in the work, then we shall have a better system of articulation between the parts. I hope that the regents will take that suggestion into consideration and see whether these questions which are talked about at Convocation may not be made the subject of study and report at future Convocations.

**Pres. James M. Taylor** — I had not intended to say a word on this question until Pres. Low made the suggestion in regard to cooperation in this state. For five years on this floor on one occasion or another I have urged on college officers precisely this cooperation. I have come sadly to the conclusion that cooperation among the colleges of the state of New York is next to impossible. I have urged it in the committee of the college officers represented among the committees of this Convocation with equally unfavorable results. It seems to me that the matter is a very simple one if this cooperation could be brought about among the college officers of the state. If once they would settle the main lines on which admission to college may



be fixed then it would not seem to me impossible. It could be easily settled, if a convocation of college officers could be held in this state which would settle for all the colleges a line of admission such as the New England commission has been doing for New England. We have not done it, and we have done nothing at all that I can see for the last five years. It seems to me that in this matter of coordination the universities are chiefly at fault. Where is the chief lack of coordination? It seems to be with the colleges which are growing into universities and which are neither the one thing nor the other. The universities which are half college and half university are pressing continually on the colleges, and at the same time are pressing forward to reach the altitude of a true university. I have sometimes thought if the university could be placed on the basis of a true university apart from the colleges, the college could hold its present place. It seems to me that this call for colleges to offer less than they offer now is nothing less than an attempt to return to a state inferior to the present. Twenty five years ago our education was far below that which we offer to-day. Never should we offer to a young man who can take no more than a general education, less than we are offering to-day. It would be a step backward if any such reduction were offered to the student of to-day.

**Sup't W: A. Maxwell, Brooklyn, N. Y.** — I had not intended to say a word, but the impression that Pres. Low's remarks have evidently made upon Dr Taylor shows that Pres. Low has been misunderstood. I think it is only due to New York state that the impression should be corrected. As I understood Pres. Low, he stated that there was a year and a half's difference in work between the preparatory year of the College of the City of New York and the freshman year of Columbia. Dr Taylor, as I understood him, supposes that there was a year and a half's difference between the end of the high school in New York and the freshman year at Columbia. There is no high school in New York so called. There is the College of the City of New York, which has, I think, a five or six years course and embodies the usual high school curriculum with at least a portion of the regular college or university course.

The principals of the city of Brooklyn were not, I regret to say, taken into consultation with the authorities of Columbia any more than Columbia college was taken into consultation by the regents of the University; but we have taken Columbia into consultation and have profited by the deliberation. It has been my good fortune



recently to assist in preparing a new course of study for our boys of the high school in Brooklyn. It may be generally known that Brooklyn is, perhaps, one of the most conservative cities in the country. In making our four years' course of study we simply took the requirements of Columbia, of Yale and of Harvard and made the matriculation examinations in those universities the end of our course of study.

We took the requirements for admission to the School of Mines of Columbia and Sheffield Scientific school as the end of our scientific course. What was the result? As soon as this course of study was announced the number of pupils who, on the completion of their work in the grammar school, entered our high school was almost double. This seems to me to convey quite an important lesson.

Prof. Schurman tells us he came to the conclusion that any proper coordination between the present high schools, colleges and universities is impossible, and that in order to obtain that coordination which seems to be so desirable, it is necessary to found an entirely new system of high schools or secondary schools. We have also heard a great deal about the American system of education. I have heard a great deal about it to-day, and have tried to gather from the various teachers who have used the term, just what is meant. I failed to do so. Prof. Schurman's idea of a system of schools specially founded, specially organized, specially conducted for the express purpose of preparing for the colleges and universities, is the English idea and the German idea; but the American system, the democratic system, should be the system by which the child when he enters the primary school will look forward to passing through all the course of the public school, through the high school and up directly into the university. That I believe is the American system.

**Sec'y Dewey** — I wish to call the attention of Convocation to the misunderstanding regarding the higher degrees proposed by the regents. While some of the university extension students are anxious to have such degrees open for competition as an incentive to systematic and continuous higher work, it should be remembered that the whole scheme of higher degrees was under consideration many years before university extension was talked of in this state. The plan proposed has been worked over by a series of able committees and the colleges have been protected in the best possible way

against anything which could be detrimental to their best interests. The report provides only for degrees recommended by the University examiners, and further provides for electing these University examiners from the college professors of the state. Thus the question of who shall receive degrees is put in the hands of the college men themselves.

#### THREE OR FOUR YEARS FOR A COLLEGE COURSE

**Prin. W. E. Buntin** — It seems to me that the only possible result of a reduction of the college course to three years must be one of two things, either the standard of scholarship must be lowered or additional work must be thrown on the already overburdened secondary schools. It would be foolish to argue that any student in college could do as much in three years as in four. I do not suppose that Harvard or any other college is seriously thinking of lowering the standard of scholarship. It follows that the larger portion of the work of the freshman year must be thrown on the secondary school, if this change takes place. What possible good can this bring about? There can be no saving of time. There is just so much work to be done either in school or in college. There may be a saving of expense, especially if the preparatory course is pursued in the public schools. The colleges have always provided for this by admitting to the higher classes any student who can pass the examination. Beyond this there is absolutely nothing to be gained by the proposed change. The colleges are better prepared to do the work of the freshman year than the secondary schools can possibly be. It is not practicable in most of these schools to have its faculty so complete that each professor is a specialist. In most of them the same person must teach several subjects, and no one can spread himself over many subjects without being thin in spots. It may not be true of some of the large schools but it is of the smaller ones. All discussion of questions pertaining to secondary schools is apt to be from the standpoint of the large schools and what they can do well, and is usually taken as a standpoint for all of the schools. Such discussion generally has reference to the comparatively few students who are preparing for college and totally ignores the vastly larger number. The colleges are prepared to do all the work of a four years' course. They have the professors, they have endowment funds increasing to an unprecedented extent, and there is absolutely no reason why they should not do all the work required for the last four years of student life leading to a degree in the arts.

**Prin. J. Anthony Bassett** — I have had a little experience for 16 years in preparing students for college. The one point that I wish to make is this. I do not believe, and I do not believe that any principal of a union school or academic department will admit, that he can train a boy at the age of 12 to apprehend or comprehend the requirements of our colleges to-day so as to enter college. I can not do it, and, if there are principals here who can do it, I would like to have them tell me how it is done. I believe we graduate our pupils from college too young. I believe that the man who goes into college at 20 grasps things better than the boy at 16 or 17. I believe he can grasp things so that he can complete a course in three years. When the colleges will make the examination entrance requirements such as we can come up to, and can finish at the age of 12 to 16, then we will come up to the point and do all the work. Very few pupils can master the regents' preliminary requirements to-day at 12.

The rank and file of common school scholars throughout the country are the ones to depend on. We do not expect to make college professors of boys and girls at the age of 19. I am in favor of a four years' course in college, unless this coordination is perfected so that the union schools can feed into the colleges, and the colleges into the universities, a thing which I believe can be done. I had four years, and if I had another year I should be better prepared to discuss this question now. I am in favor of four years' course in college. Give us four years.

**Sup't A. Gaylord Slocum** — I urge that the public schools are not necessarily preparatory schools for the colleges. They can not be so, they were not intended to be so. And yet it seems to me the necessity of preparation in the public schools for college is very great. I should not be willing to ask that the requirements of the high schools should be lessened. I am glad that we are requiring so much. I hope we shall never require less, not only because of the influence on the men who go to college, but also on the boys and girls who never go. I can see that if the time should come when the universities should be able to take the last part of the work of the colleges and carry it on, that we might shorten the course of the colleges, but till that time comes I am sure we can not do this. I hope that the time will come, and that the time between then and now will be short, when the university will not take students till they are prepared for true university work.

SHOULD DEGREES BE GIVEN ON COMPLETION OF EXAMINATIONS, REGARDLESS OF TIME OF RESIDENCE

**Prof. A. B. Kenyon** — What is a degree? What does it represent? What should it represent? Webster defines degree as the "grade or rank to which scholars are admitted in recognition of their attainments, by a college or university."

Accepting this definition, a degree represents certain attainments, a certain amount of culture, usually gained or completed at the college or university which confers the degree. A given degree should represent, as nearly as possible, the same amount of culture wherever and whenever conferred. Because a degree should represent a given amount of culture, it would seem just and right to confer that degree when the candidate attains that culture. I am therefore of the opinion that degrees should be given on completion of examinations, regardless of time of residence.

All students do not require the same amount of time to accomplish the same results. Some students can thoroughly master three subjects in the same time that others can master two, or still others one, perhaps, in exceptional cases. The usual course of study with a fixed time of residence required is supposed to be adapted to the ability of the average student. A student above the average either wastes the time not needed to accomplish the required work, or devotes it to something outside the immediate object in view. A student below the average falls out and is compelled to use at least another year, if perchance, the mortification of belonging to the class below him and going again over the year's work, does not discourage and deter him from completing his course and obtaining his degree.

By abolishing the time limit the brilliant and the hard working students are not compelled to await the pace of the average students for whom the course is planned, and the slowly paced may complete their work without the embarrassment of going twice over the same year's work. Each one may arrange his work in accordance with what his experience soon teaches him he is able to accomplish creditably, or which his instructors determine for him after careful measurement of his ability, both mental and physical. By this plan the attainment of a degree might be made possible to some bright and ambitious individual, of means too limited to permit the full four years' residence in college, yet who, by dint of earnest effort might be able to do the work in three years for instance, and might have the means for that amount of time.

Further, by doing away with the time limit an inducement is held out to the industrious and to the diligent, to utilize carefully the opportunities of college life. As in the active work of life they have the assurance of a reward for their industry and their diligence; not only the reward of culture attained, of mental strength added, but in addition thereto, the immediately tangible reward of time and money saved. Moreover a healthy rivalry may be incited, whereby even the listless may catch the spirit of emulation and be benefited. The examinations must of course be kept well up to the standard; the instruction must be as thorough and painstaking as usual; and wise regulations and careful supervision prevent the abuse of such a privilege. Thus guarded and guided, I see no sufficient reason why this should not become the plan of this progressive age.

For several years past Alfred university has conferred degrees at the next commencement (in June) after the completion of the required examinations, without regard to the time of residence. The plan has proved to be so satisfactory in its practical working that we have no thought of returning to the former plan. Some students have used less than four years in completing the college course; others more. This has been done by some taking more subjects, more classes per term than others. The graduates compare favorably with those sent out in the old way, and as the years go by we hope, and expect, more fully still to demonstrate the wisdom of the experiment.

The regents of the University have set us the example, in granting their diplomas on completion of the examinations. In due time may the example be followed by every institution of learning in the Empire state, and degrees as well as diplomas be granted upon completion of examinations, regardless of the time of residence.

In this matter, as in the performance of all life's duties, let us say, "We live in deeds, not years; in thoughts, not breaths; in feelings, not in figures on a dial."

## HIGHER EDUCATION OF WOMEN

## Discussion

OPENED BY PRES. JAMES M. TAYLOR, VASSAR COLLEGE

When Mr Dewey asked me to speak to the Convocation to-day on what at the time I supposed was the general question of women's education, I replied that in the first place, I did not represent women; in the second place, I did not believe in women's education; and in the third place, I would not. Now there was a certain exaggeration in the statements I made to him, as you perceive by my presence this afternoon. But there was no exaggeration in what I said in regard to a disbelief in these discussions of women's education. It has a firm foundation in my own conviction. I am in a sense, weary of discussing the question of women's education. I have been doing that for several years, with a growing conviction that there is nothing in it; that there is no occasion for prefixing "women" to the question at all; that there is nothing involved in the education of womankind which is not involved in the education of mankind; and for that reason I have shrunk from addressing you on the subject at all. Still there is an aspect, as I look further into the question presented to us, that I have not been used to discussing, and perhaps there may be a certain freshness in my personal views on the question of coeducation, or separate education of the sexes.

Let me say, before proceeding with my few remarks, that as I was going to the desk, a copy of the *New York Sun* was placed in my hand containing the following statement: "The first certificate of admission which Yale university has ever granted to a woman has just been received by Miss Irene W. Coit of this city, daughter of Gen. James B. Coit, formerly congressman from this district. Prof. T. D. Seymour of Yale notified Miss Coit to-day, saying that she had passed the examination satisfactorily and would be admitted." I give it to you for what it is worth. You may investigate the truth of it later.

In regard to this question of coeducation, let me say that it does not seem to me to be in the least degree a question as so many make it, of right and wrong,—that it is simply a question of expediency. We are all in favor of education; education everywhere and anyhow; education at home or in college; education by individuals or in classes; education together or education apart; any way to secure the



broadening and uplifting and satisfying of life which education in a liberal sense gives to man. This question, then, is a simple one of expediency. It seems to me that the first question that is sure to come is this: "Can as good an education be obtained in a separate college as can be obtained in a coeducational college?" If we desire to educate our children, we wish to educate them where they can be well educated. Now I raise a question that coming from me may seem to many of you to partake somewhat of the nature of a challenge, and I shall not be at all grieved if you so regard it. I believe that nine men out of 10 do not believe to-day that the work of educating women is done with anything like the thoroughness, the earnestness and the results of education among young men. I believe that even among our educators there is a very widespread suspicion that it is not necessary to maintain quite so high a standard for the education of women as for the education of men. Now I submit that this opinion, which I think very largely prevails, is simply the result of traditional prejudice and of a failure to examine the facts. I wish to assert in that connection that the leading colleges for women are I believe to-day better equipped for the work of education than the average college for men. They have more money; they have more facilities in the direction of scientific education, and who shall say that they do not set before themselves standards as high and maintain them as faithfully? Who are these who are conducting the colleges for women? In the college which I have the honor to represent, we have to-day in our faculty representatives of Union and Yale, of Oberlin and Harvard, of Princeton and Johns Hopkins, of Rochester and Cornell, of Smith and Bryn Mawr, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and a fair sprinkling of those who have studied in Leipzig and Zurich and other foreign cities. I submit that a body of people with such training ought to be able to set clearly before itself what are the general standards of education in our time. And if they can, is there any reason why they should not hew to the line as carefully as men in men's colleges? Let me say one thing as my experience in this work. I believe that the women who are engaged in the educational work of to-day are more prone to hew close to the line than any of the men engaged in the same work. Whether it be due to some native tendency of womankind; or whether it be due to the fact that every woman knows that she is serving a cause; that she is identified with a great work yet in its beginning, that very same spirit influences a very large percentage of the women students in our colleges. I declare to you, I do not



know how the young women in our colleges could possibly meet the demands we make on them if they were away from their work as much as the boys who are in the glee clubs and the football teams and the baseball nines in our men's colleges. The girls in our colleges, to meet the demands of the time, must be there and must do their work accurately and carefully and regularly, and they must meet the line which is laid down by the colleges. Some words were said this morning in connection with the necessity of work in our American colleges. We are all liable to be impeached at times for lack of careful adherence to our standards, and not always justly. I think it possible that a student may go from your schools into any college in this state, by one chance or another, when you know he is not able to take a college course, and it takes the college some time to find it out. But I do submit that there is nothing in the reason of things, nothing in the equipment of the colleges, nothing in the facilities that are there furnished, on which to base an argument for a belief that an inferior education is given to young women at the separate colleges for women. I am willing at least to throw out that challenge to the educational world to-day. I believe that the work done in the college of which I know most is done as thoroughly, as honestly, with as high standards as in any college of this state that is educating men alone, or men and women together. If it be true that the separate college can give as good an education as the coeducational college, then at least one question bearing on expediency is removed from us. There is no reason at least for abolishing the separate college so long as it can do its work well.

There is one point of expediency bearing upon this question that is sure to work always for the coeducational college. That is the element of locality — convenience, expense — these are all bound up in that one word, locality. This will account for the preference of a great many for the coeducational college for the daughter who otherwise would be sent to a separate college. In considering the question as to whether it is expedient for you to send your daughter to a coeducational college, there is one point which I think should be fairly stated, though it is not pleasant for me to state it. Without any question, it seems to me that there is more danger that in a coeducational college there will be a certain loss of influence that is needed about the life of almost every young girl to encourage the more refined feelings and tendencies of life, and a greater temptation than can possibly exist in the separate college. I know how easy it is to dogmatize on this point, and falsely. I know how

easy it is to lay down a general principle and to fancy that it will meet all cases. As a matter of fact I know, as we all know, enough women who come from coeducational colleges of the country who would seem wholly to brush aside this objection which I have stated, who would seem to demonstrate that it is not in the least degree well taken, women who have not been touched in the least degree by the elements of that life that to many women seem at least a threat in the direction I have indicated. But I think it can not be denied that the temptation is there, that the danger is there. A boy's life is so entirely different in his college career from that which is possible to a girl. The boy seeks his own society. He goes where he chooses. He can always find families in which he is welcome. So can the girl, but in a different sense. She is not as independent, and can not possibly seek in the same way for the society she wishes as the boy can. There are certain temptations in her very condition, living as she does, and as she must, that tend at least to result in eliminating those refining influences that ought to gather continually about the life of every young girl, and equally, I say, about every young boy. But, mark you, a man can grow up, lacking in all of the general varieties of refinement, and not be challenged for it. I think this is never true of a woman. On whatever ground you choose to put it, the fact stands there. I think the young women themselves are much more likely to influence one another in this respect than in a coeducational college.

I am not anxious to exaggerate this matter. I believe however that the boy's instinct is right. The majority of the boys in our colleges are against coeducation. Very seldom do we find them favoring the introduction of coeducation. I believe they are right for many reasons and these reasons seem worthy of consideration. There is a feeling in my own mind that in these years of college life there is a certain tranquility that enters into the life, that is separated from its general social conditions; a certain restfulness that comes to both boy and girl in just that separation and a certain lack of restfulness that comes to both boy and girl in the other relations. And I believe that it is of immense value in this American life of ours if we can give such a period of tranquility by this means to both boy and girl. I know the argument that is constantly brought out in regard to this in connection with the discussion of coeducation in the high school, refusing new separate schools for boys and girls. The argument is this: that nature is all in favor of coeducation. Are not our boys and girls trained together in the family? *Ergo*, they ought

to be educated together in the college. To my my mind, this is utterly preposterous. There is nothing more like the throwing together of boys and girls in the college and in the home than there is between the ace of spades and the agricultural implement of that name. It seems to me utterly preposterous to draw nature into the argument in any phase whatever.

Now let me make this final point in connection with the general theme. The one great point in education that has always seemed to me to have the utmost weight is coeducators. The chief influences that are claimed for coeducation are produced by coeducators, and I want to say that there are some separate colleges for women that are rather ahead on this portion of the theory. There are very few coeducational colleges in this country that have gone to the logical limits of their theory. Very few of them have found a competent woman and put her there to teach the boys and girls. If there is anything in coeducation at all, it goes into the faculty as well as into the ranks of the students. I think there is not much of a principle at stake here, but a great deal of expediency.

I heard a lady a little while ago say "Yes, I shall send my boy to a coeducational college. I think there is a refining influence there for the boy, but I shall not send my daughter there." An editor said to me the other day, "Do you know what I think about coeducation? Coeducation for the great American people, separate education for my boy and girl."

**Hamilton W. Mabie**, *trustee Barnard college* — I suppose when Dr White referred this morning to the fact that some of the college catalogues have an element of deceit in them in that they promise things which they do not fulfil, it did not occur to him that there was a certain element of deceit in the program of this occasion. I am set down to speak on the subject of coeducation and I do not intend to touch the subject. I will say in the beginning, as I am under the iron law of five minutes, that I shall endeavor to put my points as concisely as possible. I do not speak on the subject of coeducation for two reasons. In the first place, I am a layman, and who am I that I should give an opinion on the subject? Second, I speak for a young institution, for a college that is only two years old, and it does not behoove us in the presence of our elder sisters and more mature brothers to advance any opinion on a subject so important as this.

I confess that I felt a little chill in the atmosphere after what was said this morning about small colleges and young colleges. It is the

misfortune of some things that they have to be born, and it was the misfortune of Barnard college that it did not start at the age of a century. I remember some gentleman, I think it was Emerson, who said that the misfortune of his life had been that when he was a boy nobody cared for children, and now that he had grown up to be an old man nobody cared for old men. Barnard college is in somewhat that situation. There was a time when young institutions were tenderly nursed, but that age has passed, and now a young college rises under the shadow of its older sisters and older brothers.

I venture this afternoon to say just a word about Barnard college because it is the first time that we have had the opportunity to speak to an academic audience. The older colleges with their maturity and their traditions, their organization and their endowment, have the field, and the new college that starts in ought to have a good reason for being. Now, we did not create Barnard college, it came in spite of us; it came because it must be. Every 10 years there is a new constituency for the college, perhaps every five years. We are told that this year the entering classes are largely in advance of those of last year. At Yale the class of last year was 18 per cent larger than the year before, and this year altogether 18 per cent larger than last year, and Harvard is 100 in excess of the class of last year. So we see that there is a rapidly growing constituency of men and women in this country who desire the opportunities of higher education. Many colleges for women are already overcrowded, are already turning from their doors those who desire their opportunities. It seems, then, that we have a special field. We are in the center of a population, within a radius of 25 miles, of nearly 4,000,000 of people. Out of that mass I do not need to say there are girls enough, who could not be educated at college if they had to go from home, to sustain amply a large college in the community. Among the 59 students which we have at Barnard we have found only two who would have gone elsewhere to college. So I say to those of you who represent our sister institutions, into whose company we are proud to come, that we are in no sense your rivals. We are not taking from you, we are only multiplying and increasing the class who support all colleges and on whose good will and intelligence all colleges of this country must depend.

We have another justification for our being, in the fact that we have planted ourselves on a solid basis of college work. We have made our college first and we are getting our constituency as we

We may have been overwhelmed with applications from those who desire to enter and take special courses without academic training. We plant ourselves on the thorough-going, complete, substantial, honest basis of college work. We do not pretend, we do not intend, to have a place for miscellaneous education. We intend to offer only the most substantial opportunity and to demand the most honest and substantial work. The institution is growing rapidly. So rapidly that our means are all strained to provide for it, although we have an endowment which approaches \$130,000 to \$140,000. We see how much we can do. We desire the cooperation of all our sister colleges and desire to have our position thoroughly understood. We enter into no contest, we simply wish to take our place in the great city of New York and to supply there an opportunity to a class of girls who would not have that opportunity if it were offered to them elsewhere. Barnard college rises in the presence of a grand opportunity, and because we have the opportunity we have a right to be.

**Pres. Charles Van Norden** — I find it impossible to believe in the advisability of coeducation, and I purpose to say a few words against it. I will and I can make one point, and that is an exclamation point over against the one little word "sex." Woman, I insist, is not man; not the lesser man, not the shadow of man, not the coming man, but is herself; her wit, her beauty, her grace, her influence are not man's but all her own. All the progress that woman has made through the advantages of emancipation from the wrongs and the follies that have beset her, has been not on masculine lines but on purely feminine lines. Woman has moved not toward manhood, but always toward a broader, nobler, more generous, more tender and wiser womanhood; and the ideal of womanhood at this present time is more gentle, more tender, more truly womanly than that of the former age. In other words, the distinctions of sex are radical, and specially at that early age when young girls go to college. Sex conditions the whole of the being, intellectual, emotional, moral, religious, and I believe that coeducational institutions do not attach to these facts that importance that belongs to them, and that they can not make provision for this state of things in their scheme.

If you train the brain and nerve centers of a young man he is said to be educated. That is not enough with the young women. You must provide for three things, the personal charm, the social

culture and the religious elevation ; that personal charm, that grace and fascination, in the possession of which woman counterbalances the superior masculinity of man and by which alone she is able to stand at his side, his counterpart and surely his equal ; then that social culture, in the realm of which woman has always been queen, and in and through which she is going to mold society.

There are three kinds of colleges : masculine, feminine, and neuter. I do not speak in this way of the third class in disparagement at all, I revere and I honor it. When our great universities throw open their doors to women it marked a distinct advance in the progress of mankind. It was a grand, generous, noble act, and I honor these colleges for it. But I can not believe that this experiment will succeed and I feel confident that it does not succeed. I must, while I respect their ability and their interest, and fully recognize it, I must challenge the correctness of the observation and the soundness of the conclusions of those who affirm that the experiment does succeed. I will admit that some of the great coeducational universities are far better equipped than any of our women's colleges ; that they have better observatories and gymnasiums. I do not believe there is one piece of apparatus worth \$15,000 in any one woman's college in the world. I will admit that the average ability, experience and skill of the professors in the faculties of some of these great universities are superior and will remain superior to those of the faculties of women's colleges ; but over against these unattainable advantages there are a great many disadvantages ; their size, their publicity and their masculinity. I insist that it is a wrong, that it is an impurity, and will involve some danger if you turn a young girl loose in the great university, even if in that university you surround her with guardian angels. I believe that a young girl should attend a college where there is, to some extent at least, limit of numbers, that you may preserve a certain family atmosphere, that you may have the home influence and a closer friendship between the students and the faculty and the girls one with another. It is one of the privileges of the college which I represent that it is not large in numbers, but if the time ever comes when the girls crowd in on us in great numbers I am going to move for a limitation of the numbers of students that are allowed to enter the institution, that we may preserve the home atmosphere. There should be a barrier of seclusion thrown about a young girl during the period of her college life. I do not believe in treating young ladies in colleges as nuns, but I make my girls feel that there is a little barrier round about them secluding



them from the influences of the world and protecting them from those evils hinted at by Dr Taylor in the remarks that he made.

I will close what I have to say by simply repeating a little story that possibly you may have heard. It was on an occasion like this when they were discussing coeducation that Prof. Park was called on for his opinion. He rose and gave them several anecdotes. In one little story he said that in a certain college with which he was connected there was a young man of very great ability, very diligent and constant. It was a coeducational institution. Suddenly this young man fell off in scholarship and in interest, and in a very short time he took his place quite near the foot of the class. The members of the faculty were exercised over it. One gave one reason and another gave another. Finally the old president was asked for his opinion, and he replied in his drawling tones that in his judgment that young man had received a shock from a *galvanic* battery. There are some shocking galvanic battery results even in the best secluded woman's college. I am confident that there must be a great many more under a system of coeducation.

**Prin. A. C. Hill** — I find it impossible to believe that coeducation is a failure. First, because the burden of proof in the case rests with those who assert that it is a failure, and this proof has not been produced. Second, the fact that coeducation is an established fact at the present time and is a success, is, as it seems to me, a very strong argument in favor of it. The opposition to coeducation rests on the fundamental idea of the inferiority of women. That same idea 50 years ago said that woman should not receive higher education at all. That idea has now been exploded. The same fundamental idea seems to underlie the theory that women must be educated in a separate college. There remains at the present time only prejudice, ignorance and misrepresentation on which to base the argument against coeducation, and prejudice is the strongest of all these. Doubtless we shall go on as we are at present for some time. We shall have separate colleges for women and we shall have annexes, which seem to me the worst of them all, for if a woman is entitled to go into a college at all she is entitled to go in at the front door. I should remove the annex entirely. Let us have institutions where men and women are educated together, or let us have separate institutions entirely. The dangers spoken of and hinted at seem to be without foundation. Our boys and girls grow up together, associate together, but we are told that they can not go into a classroom and recite their lessons together. This is an absurdity.



We are told that the boy does not want them ; that the best instincts of the boy are all right. The instinct of the boy is that baseball and football and all these other things are the principal things connected with college life. The instinct of the boy seems to me to be based on the idea that the boy is a little tin god on wheels. He does not want any ladies or girls in the classroom with him. He wants to go home from college and tell wonderful stories of what the boys do, and he wants the ladies to be impressed with his great superiority. If the young ladies were allowed to go into the same classroom with him he would soon find out that he was not quite as large a person as he thought he was, and they might prove to be his superiors. That is the reason he does not want them.

Professors themselves do not want the young ladies in the same class because they think that it would in some way lower the standard of the college. The coeducational institution at present is looked down on by the masses. They think it is an inferior institution. I say this is a prejudice that will have to be done away with before we shall have things as they ought to be. If boys and girls are to receive the same training there is no logical ground on which to build up the theory that boys should be educated in one school, and girls in another. They might just as well all come together and recite together.

There are many sections of the country that do not have educational institutions of both kinds accessible to young people and those institutions that do exist might be made stronger if they could be combined into fewer in number, and the facilities for education would be greatly increased by making coeducation an actual fact throughout the land. I say the opposition to coeducational institutions is largely the result of prejudice, ignorance and misrepresentation. If a boy and a girl in a coeducational institution happen to walk out together, it gets in the newspapers and is heralded abroad that coeducation is a failure. The same thing is done when the young lady is under the guardianship of the parent. This is something that we have to contend with in institutions of this kind, but so far as the facts themselves are concerned I think there are none upon which to base the belief that education in separate institutions is necessary. It is well enough to open the doors of the colleges to the women. If they do not wish to come they may stay away, and if the boys do not wish them to be there they can freeze them out ; so the matter will settle itself and settle itself right. It seems to me to be unjust to women and wrong in principle.

## BARNARD COLLEGE ; A NEW PHASE OF THE ANNEX

**Miss Ella Weed, trustee Barnard college** — The English affiliated colleges and the Harvard annex have this in common: they have no official connection with the colleges to which they are annexed; at no point does the parent college assume any responsibility for the work, and in no case does it grant the degree. The word annex applied to Barnard college is almost a misnomer. It is better described by a name to which it has no legal right, as the Columbia school of arts for women. Columbia conducts all examinations for entrances and in course; Columbia assumes the responsibility of instruction, and Columbia gives its degrees to the students of Barnard college upon precisely the same terms as to its men students. One college does the same work under the direction of the Columbia faculty at Madison avenue and 44th street, that the other is doing.

Barnard college was not planted by the oppression of Columbia, it is the natural outgrowth of Columbia's unprecedented generosity in giving women, first of all, what other colleges have persistently refused — equal honors for equal work. It exists to-day not by the courtesy of individual members of the faculty, but by the cordial support of the president and government of Columbia college.

Coeducation seems to be largely a matter of longitude. In communities where boys and girls are educated together up to the time of entering college, the coeducational college is natural, simple, and therefore, successful. This is not the common training in the large, or even in the smaller cities of the east — when after all, the question is one of manners, rather than of morals or education, it is attended with so many complications that the doubtful result seems hardly worth the price.

Barnard college was founded in the belief that an annex whose parent college guarded the dignity of its degree, not by refusing it, — but by testing the work which led to it, — would be not the transition between the separate and the coeducational college, but the solution of the problem.

What is the essential of coeducation? Identity of standard for men and women? Barnard has that, and she has the Columbia degree in evidence of that identity.

What is the essential of the separate college? The recognition of accepted social standards in throwing every safeguard around the girlhood of its students. Barnard does that and more. It gives the girls of New York city college training in their own homes. In so

doing, it puts the social responsibility where at least a part of it belongs, upon the fathers and mothers.

To Cornell and Ann Arbor, we say we shall be very proud if we can some day show such women as you are sending to Columbia to get masters' and doctors' degrees. Is their training to be traced back to the instructor's desk or the students' benches? To other annexes who sometimes accuse us of placing an undue value on the degree, we say: No, it is Oxford and Cambridge and Harvard who put the undue value on the degree when they refuse it to the students they have themselves educated. Columbia has said to more than one Harvard annex woman, "You have had a Harvard education. You have the essential which we demand as a basis for higher honors. The degree is but the guinea's stamp, an education's an education for a' that; but in the world's market, guineas are more convenient than nuggets. You shall no longer be subjected to the annoyance and delay of waiting while every shopkeeper weighs and tests your treasure and cross-examines you as to where you got it and how you came by it."

To Vassar, alma mater of all women's colleges, we say: "Your youngest child sees no other way to feel sure that she has had what college training means for a man, except to have her work judged by the same court which passes upon his. No endowment can give you the 130 years of Columbia's inheritance, which we share."

Organization and resources already tested for more than a century are ours. We are a part of a great university, which under its present government is pushing forward along lines of progress with a directness and vigor, which promise unmistakably to attract and absorb all that is best in the great city of New York.

#### COEDUCATION AT CORNELL

**Ex-Pres. Andrew D. White** — I shall try to keep from intruding my own personal views on this subject as much as possible and give simply and solely the results of our experience at Cornell, to which young women are admitted and have been admitted during nearly all the years of its existence. A word of history to show you how the institution fell into it. Mr Cornell, the founder, was a member of the society of friends, or had been till he married a lady from outside, and then his relations to the society were somewhat changed. His feeling was somewhat in favor of the admission of women, and in the very short speech which he gave at the opening of the university, he took very moderate ground in favor of such admission. At

the same time without consultation with him, and without having the slightest intimation of what was to be in his speech, I took somewhat similar ground. I will now put my experience and knowledge before this Convocation, and I think it will have the effect to prick a bubble of considerable size that is generally blown when this question is discussed.

Some of you who read French literature will recall the case of the great amazement of the man who, being instructed by some one whom he had employed to make him an educated gentleman as to the distinction between prose and verse, said, "Why, by my soul, I have been talking prose all my life." So with education; coeducation has been the rule in the academies and normal schools in this and surrounding states from time immemorial. Young man, I call your special attention to this fact, and see how much real fear, how much prejudice it knocks out of the discussion when I say to you: young men and women of marriageable age from distant homes have come together in the academies, high schools and normal schools of the New England states and of this state, and so far as I can learn from the predecessor of our esteemed secretary, no scandals have ever occurred. The relations between the sexes in these institutions are all that could be desired. Allow me to recall one little matter of history which had great effect on myself, and you will pardon me for making it a bit of personal history. My own mother was one of the most conservative women I have ever known, caring absolutely nothing for what we generally call modern and progressive ideas. On our way home from the opening of Cornell university she said, "Of all these things, on one matter you are right. That is the matter of the education of young men and women together." She said, I was sent to as good a boarding school as there was in New England, and the education I received was fairly good, but the best education by far I ever received, I received at the Cortland academy where I sat on the benches near and studied side by side with such men as afterward became Judge Lane, Judge Nelson, Judge Ira Harris, who afterward became senator of this state, and Judge Wheeler." That had an effect on my mind; but still women were not admitted. We had a consultation with the board of trustees, but they were not prepared for it. At last Mr Henry W. Sage came to me and said: "I believe with you in the matter and when you are ready for the admission of women, I will back you up." The time came when I thought we were ready. Mr Sage came forward with a gift of \$300,000 to put up a building for the

women, and so endow it that there should be a lady principal and director in charge. The matter was brought to a focus in a very peculiar way. A lady brought in one of the certificates for state scholarship. There was no way but to admit her. The law says persons. It did not say men, or women, it said persons. I signed her certificate and she was admitted. She was an established fact. But unfortunately, there was no place where she could live on college hill. She had to climb that high hill and after a while she gave it up. She came to me and said she was very sorry, but she could not stand the fatigue in winter of climbing up that high hill and so would go elsewhere. The question then came up and a committee was appointed to look into the matter. They discovered some interesting and curious things bearing on this problem.

At the University of Michigan, where women were admitted, I had been a professor. I went into some of the lecture rooms, while visiting the place after I left the university, and to my great surprise, I found the greatest improvement in the order of the whole establishment. As I afterwards said to some of my friends, the difference between the University of Michigan when only the men were admitted and when men and women recited in the same recitation rooms, was the difference between the smoking-car and the car back of it. Then we got a little bit of testimony which was all the more valuable. There was a janitor in my time whose soul was greatly vexed by the students, and as I met him one day after women were admitted I said to him, "Jolly, do the students still make life a burden to you, as they used to do?" "Oh no," he said, "I don't have any more trouble. You see the boys can't rush each other through the halls, nor rush me down the stairs, because the girls are there."

In regard to Cornell university, allow me to say that by a curious law we have generally about 10 per cent of our students young women. Thus, when we had 450 students, about 45 were women; and now that we have 1400 students, we have about 140 women. They live in a building by themselves, under admirable care. There are certain regulations to which they cheerfully agree; regulations as to visiting public places, etc., those which would occur to any reasonable person.

Now I wish to say that I am no dogmatizer in regard to coeducation. It would be a misfortune if all were educated in the same way. I know a family in which there are two daughters. One of these girls would naturally be sent to a coeducational college; nothing

more natural. The other was largely a creature of impulse, of imagination, and more fitted to go to a young ladies' boarding school. We do not propose in coeducational colleges to weaken your boarding schools. We think it requires a great sacrifice on the part of a young girl to go to a university. But few will undertake it and I maintain that it is not well to lay stones in the way of those who do undertake it.

In regard to the letting down of character, of culture and of lady-like feeling of those who go to coeducational colleges, I think my friend who urges the possibility of that is most wofully mistaken. Let me recall just two cases. Any of you who know Miss Alice Freeman, now Mrs Palmer of Harvard, or Miss Katharine Coman, and I might add others, will see in a moment how unjust this is. Oberlin was the first college that satisfied me that the admission of women does not make a man less manly, for although women have been admitted there from the earliest time, that was the only college from which the men poured themselves out into the armies of the United States when the civil war came on.

It has been said here that the young men are opposed to the admission of women. Now as my friend from Cook academy very justly said, I do not consider young men as absolutely infallible on all questions of faith and morals, or in all questions of college discipline. I think there are some better standards of authority. It is not in accordance strictly with the truth to say that all, or even the majority, of the young men in our colleges are opposed to it; but it is true that a very large number are opposed to it, and this is natural. If I may be allowed to use the vernacular, coeducation is not "the nobby thing." Harvard is not for it. Oxford has not adopted it; English Cambridge has not adopted it; how on earth could Harvard be for it? In my experience, a large majority of our thoughtful, manly, sturdy young men are quietly for it and see the advantages of it.

I do not know that there is any other point to be noted save one. A remark was made that strictly and logically we ought to have women professors. Well, this has been done. One of the most famous professors that ever lived was Olympia Morata, of the University of Heidelberg, and if we could produce a professor of science like Mary Somerville, we should be willing to elect her to a professorship in Cornell.

One point has been left untouched. It shows how much discussion there can be about a subject by a number of the foremost thinkers



of the country on educational matters, and yet leave the one point, the most dangerous point which has occurred to us who have had occasion to know something of it, untouched, that is the question of woman's health. This is a very serious question. I would rather have the women of this country know nothing of the alphabet, if in learning the alphabet they became sickly and unfit to be the mothers of the future race. It has been said that they are more conscientious than men and that, therefore, there is danger from the mental strain on them at the very time when they ought not to have it. There is truth in that, and that is the one thing that is to be guarded against. A woman physician should be with the women students to see that they observe the rules of health and to reiterate over and over again the importance of preserving health above all things, and to advise them, if there is any danger of their health suffering from their work, to leave it at once. The general testimony is that their health is as good as or better than when they entered, because of the regular life of the college.

I see room for the annex, for the boarding school; I see admirable work to be done by the colleges for women; but I maintain that there is a field in some of the larger universities for the instruction of women who have a decided taste for work in certain departments which the other colleges established for women as yet afford them no means of doing.

#### RELATION OF A COEDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION TO ITS WOMEN STUDENTS

**Miss Alla W. Foster, *Boston, Mass.*** — What shall be the relation of the coeducational university to its women students? Shall this relation be parental? Shall a home be made for them, with the motherly care, the restraints, the training, which that word implies? Or shall they be left, as the men are left, to regulate their lives as they please, entirely free from rules other than those which the general demands of good order require?

Most of the smaller colleges have provided boarding houses for their young women, and have made attempts, more or less successful, to infuse the home spirit into the social life of the students. One, at least, of the large universities, Cornell, has adopted this policy, while two of them, Michigan and Boston, have placed the women, socially as well as intellectually, on the same basis as the men. A careful comparison of the results of the two systems would be instructive, but for this I have not time. All I can hope to do is to throw out a few thoughts suggested to me by my knowledge of Cornell as one of its



alumnæ, and by a somewhat close acquaintance with the working of the other system at Boston and at Michigan universities. If there is anything to be learned by a study of the facts, and if any help can come from their discussion, this is the very moment when the subject should be taken up by such a body as yours, for at this moment the policy of Chicago and of Stanford universities is forming, and their relations toward their women students is not one of the least difficult of their problems.

Coeducation is an unqualified success at Michigan and at Boston. There has never been a moment's doubt as to its immediate, as well as its ultimate, triumph. The character of the young women has been high, their deportment ladylike, their scholarship fine. As far as I can learn, no case has arisen calling for severe discipline. Both professors and male students have been friendly and helpful, treating the women as an integral part of the student body. But coeducation has not been a complete success at Cornell. While most of the women have been everything that could be desired, a few have been frivolous and undignified, and, in the cases of two of them at least, severe disciplinary measures have been necessary. Some members of the faculty and many of the students have always been hostile to the system, and with some show of reason, it must be confessed. It would be absurd to assert that this difference in results at the three universities is due to mere accident, or that the women of New York are less high minded and serious than those of Michigan and Massachusetts. Let us rather seek for the cause in the different conditions existing at these institutions.

When the Sage building at Cornell was ready for use, it was named "Sage college for women," and the impression (now happily corrected) was given in the register that it was a separate institution, though connected with the university and receiving the benefit of its lectures, laboratories, and degrees. Its students were to be members of a family whose head should have careful supervision of the family life. This attractive but somewhat misleading notice brought its natural results. Parents sent girls to *Sage college* who would never have sent them to *Cornell university*, girls whose place was a boarding school, or, at best, a woman's college. It is the presence of a few such frivolous girls which has, I apprehend, caused even some of the friends of coeducation at Cornell to suspend judgment.

With the character of college men so far below the ideal standard of true manliness as we find it everywhere, it must needs be that the woman who becomes the fellow student of such men must be much

above the average girl in strength and dignity, else not only will her own womanhood fare hard, but she will help to lower the intellectual and moral tone of the university. This necessity being granted, it follows that every coeducational institution should endeavor to attract to its classes only the very choicest of the women students,—those whose fineness of moral fiber will prove an armor of defense against coarse natures and whose high intellectual aims will leave no time or desire for silliness and disorder. If a university “matronizes” its women, such women will come as need matronizing, and that class is fatal to the success of coeducation. Let such women be *educated*, by all means, but let them not be *coeducated*.

If Chicago and Stanford universities will take a lesson from the experience of institutions where the experiment has been tried, it will be well for them and for the women of the country.

#### COEDUCATION AT ALFRED UNIVERSITY

**Prof. D. A. Blakeslee** — It is scarcely necessary at this time in this discussion for me to add any further remarks. The gentlemen and ladies who have preceded me have stolen nearly all of my thunder. The line of argument that I had thought to take has been used on three different occasions already this afternoon. Therefore it is hardly necessary, as I said at first, for me to repeat that. I may then more properly, perhaps, stand before you as a witness on the stand in respect to the operation of this idea in one locality. To avoid being put in a corner let me ask my own questions, so I shall be sure to be ready to answer them.

What was the extent of coeducation at Alfred? First, consistency. There is no sex in education. There is no sex in the human mind. Since the utterance that in heaven there is no marriage or giving in marriage, it has been true and will be true that there is no sex in respect to the human mind. I am well aware of the strong arguments that have been offered this afternoon in respect to the peculiar qualities of the human mind; but I claim that the peculiarities of mind are as various among men themselves and among women themselves as between men and women, and therefore that the argument based on the foundation of sex is not strong in itself. Hence we took the ground, to be consistent, that we must offer the light to whosoever applies. When a person applied for admission in the university he was to be received provided he brought the requisite credentials.

Second, I would offer as our intent the same reason that was offered for the female college; a home. In the family which I know better than any other there is no boy, and I am perfectly well aware that there is a serious lack in many respects in that family on that account. I know also that if you are to have an ideal home you must have that home composed of such elements as make up the life of man, and that can not be secured unless you have in it both sexes. Our intent was to educate. There is a field for every school that has started in our great commonwealth. Those schools arose because there was a call for them. There is a call for every school founded, and it does not matter whether it is attended by boys or by girls. Our school was founded because there were young people in that locality growing up to take an active part in future activities. It follows thus that this school should educate those who belong to that section, whether male or female.

#### COEDUCATION IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

**Miss Mary F. Hyde** — Since our normal schools were established for the specific purpose of training teachers, the wisdom of having coeducation in these schools must depend on this question, can we by this means secure better trained teachers? From a long experience in normal school work I am positive that coeducation in normal schools is best for the young men, best for the young women, best for the public schools, best for the state, but I will simply call attention to some of the advantages that coeducation in normal schools has for young women.

In the first place better work will be done by the students if there are mixed classes of young men and young women. The students in our normal schools are of mature age, and many in every class are teachers of several years' experience. Students of this age and experience gain quite as much from one another, both in the classroom and out of it, as they do from their teachers. Subjects brought before the class for discussion are looked at from different points of view, opinions are exchanged, and experiences compared. Thus a broader outlook is gained and an element of strength added to the work.

Then again, pupils in mixed schools not only do better, stronger work, but they receive better instruction. I do not mean that normal schools having mixed classes have better teachers than other schools where the two sexes are taught separately, but that the teachers in those schools will teach better. It is said that the

teacher makes the class, and this is true to a certain extent, but it is equally true that the class makes the teacher. Let a teacher, man or woman, enter a class of bright, enthusiastic, earnest young women, such as may be found in any of our normal schools, and he or she can not help doing good work, but let that same teacher enter a class made up not alone of young women but of young men as well, and he or she will do far better work.

All women teachers have an interest in coeducation in normal schools. It leads indirectly to a more just estimate of the value of their work as teachers, and to a readier recognition of it on the part of school officers. The number of school principals, school superintendents, school commissioners, and even in some place members of boards of education, who have had normal training is constantly increasing. These officials having themselves been intelligent co-workers with young women in the classroom, grappling together difficult problems and putting in practice the principles studied, will waste no time in debating the question whether a woman can teach in other than primary grades, but will welcome her to any position for which she is fitted.

#### MISSION OF THE COEDUCATIONAL ACADEMY

**Prin. John Greene**—I suppose it will not be entirely out of place if some of us count ourselves in the witness-box and give testimony.

I was trained for college in a boys' school, and took my college course in a boys' school. I think for me it was a misfortune that my preparatory course at least was not taken in a coeducational school. After beginning my teaching I was in a boys' school for three years; afterwards I was at the head of a coeducational school for seven years; and now I have the honor to represent what is known as a boys' school; but we have girls in it all the time.

To take up directly the subject named, I call your attention to this line of thought. They tell us that something like two thirds of the people have come to live in cities; but let us not forget the one third that do not. Let us remember that the boys and girls growing up in our rural districts have in them some of the best blood and brain to be found in this country. The lads who are growing up amid the green fields are in some sense the hope of the country. They are likely to grow up with the best constitutions, and, provided they have special opportunities set before them, they are likely to achieve great successes in the future,—such as were at-

tained by Lincoln and Garfield, and other men who have come from humble surroundings. If these boys and girls are to have the educational advantages which they need, they must go away from home. We can not have a thoroughly well equipped academy in every village throughout the land. The next question is, How must the school be organized to which parents can be willing to send their boys and girls, and have them wholly out of their oversight? No parent would think of sending his boy or girl to a distant town to board with a family who are strangers; besides the town authorities do not want these outside pupils in their school. Therefore, the boy and the girl must be sent to the school that offers the nearest approach to the home. Every school should offer intellectual culture, of course; but it should also offer proper opportunities for social training. It ought to keep that which has been carefully imparted in a good home; or, as is most apt to be the case, the school should be prepared to give the social culture which the parents of this boy or girl did not have an opportunity to acquire in their young days, and which, therefore, their children must get when they go away to school, if they get it at all.

▲ The question comes, Can we afford, is there any prospect that this generation, or the next can afford, to build as many thoroughly equipped schools for boys, and as many more for girls as are needed for the suitable training of these young people, who must get their preparation for college and university away from home? I believe the question answers itself the moment it is asked.

If this generation or the next are to meet the needs of the boys and girls who are worthy of this training, they must do it by establishing coeducational academies, with competent faculties, composed of men and women of noble character. Therefore, it seems to me that whatever opinion there may be as to the merits of coeducation in college or university, there should be no doubt that coeducational academies are not only to be encouraged, but to be hoped for and prayed for in every section of our broad land.

#### EFFECT ON HEALTH OF HIGHER EDUCATION OF WOMEN

Miss Florence M. Cushing, *trustee, Vassar college* — In tracing the progress of thought in this country along any special line, it is interesting to note how, in spite of the arguments of fanatics at the one extreme and fast-fossilizing conservatives at the other, the great common sense of the people finally asserts itself. We refer to

that element of our nation which does no talking, does but little thinking, but in its slow sturdy way sifts unconsciously from; out the chaff sent out by printing press and from public platform the golden grains of truth. In no way has this been more marked than in the general judgment as to the effects of the higher education on the physical health of women. Twenty five years ago there were no facts with which to refute or confirm the testimony of theorists. The strong force of medical authority, that best fitted by nature and training to pronounce on its vital question, was ranged almost savagely on the opposing side. Its doctrine: "Educate your women, a ruined race-physique the result," was heard on every side. Public judgment did indeed seem to swerve to their standard. But in spite of all this weight of opinion compounded of prejudice and honest conviction as well, still young women went to college. Given the opportunity for the higher education, and from the students flocking to the colleges came the quick common-sense answer to the question, shall women endowed with mental possibilities the equivalent, if not the equal of men, lack the physical power to develop them? In the very year when the tide culminated in Dr Clarke's *Sex in education*, plans for two new women's colleges were crystallizing and Vassar still counted her 400 students. Since that time, the debate has gradually drifted away from its original ground, until now the mooted question is not, shall our young women have opportunities for the higher education, but what shall that education be and under *what conditions* pursued? How has this change been brought about? Largely by refuting the opinion of prejudiced opponents and theorists, by stubborn facts. Sixteen years after Vassar college was founded, the Association of collegiate alumnæ was formed, a unique association of college women, composed of graduates of nine universities and colleges, united for practical educational work. It is significant that the first work entered upon was the collection of statistics bearing on the health of college women. The work of the committee in charge composed of representatives of 12 different colleges and universities, extended over three years. It was conducted in a wholly impartial spirit and with a care and insight of which the association may well be proud. It was the first, and until within the past year the only attempt which had been made to draw conclusions from the facts themselves. Forty questions relating to physical health were prepared under the counsel of widely differing authorities, chiefly medical.

These were submitted to 1290 college women graduates scattered



over the country; 54 per cent returned full replies, a much larger proportion of returns than is usually the case. As proof that the data were tabulated according to the best statistical methods, it needs only to be stated that they were placed in the hands of the Mass. Bureau of statistics, then presided over by Col. Carroll D. Wright.

Passing over the manifold and interesting side issues which were evolved from these statistics, it will suffice to repeat Col. Wright's carefully guarded statement made at the conclusion of his exhaustive report:

"It is sufficient to say that the women graduates of our colleges and universities do not seem to show as the result of their college studies and duties, any marked difference in general health from the average health likely to be reported by an equal number of women engaged in other kinds of work, or, in fact, of women generally without regard to occupation followed."

In some respects, the results obtained from these data suffered from having no corresponding ones with which to draw comparison. In the recent valuable report on the health statistics of women students of Oxford and Cambridge and their sisters, this defect has been removed. Here we have data relating not only to college women, but also a parallel series of statistics obtained from members of the same families as the individual students, nearest them in age, but not having pursued university courses of study. From the 41 tables prepared from these statistics we have results which argue even more strongly in favor of the college education as to its effects upon health, the students in the aggregate maintaining a higher standard of health than their sisters.

We have preferred to refer to this hotly disputed question from the ground of fact rather than that of theory. We have had enough of *à priori* argumentation to last for another generation at least. But it is specially desirable that too much should not be claimed for such statistics as those referred to. It is true that the spirit of the investigators both in this country and in England has been so unpartisan that it has inspired great confidence even in the minds of skeptics in the results obtained. At the same time the nature of the research is such and the numbers at present necessarily so limited, that it would be wholly unscientific to draw definite and comprehensive conclusions from such data as are possible to obtain. But what has been accomplished beyond cavil is the shifting of the burden of proof to the shoulders of the opponents of the higher education. Until an array of adverse testimony, collected with



equal care and tabulated with equal impartiality has been set forth, we need have no fears as to the physique of our college women. The vital question now is with the higher education for women as with that of men: *how* to secure the best physical development of the individual student during college and university life. It may be too much to claim, but the college woman of to-day will not be satisfied unless university education fulfils for woman the larger mission of a higher physical as well as higher intellectual development. It is her hope that she may never forget the historic words so often quoted: "To be as good as our fathers, we must be better."

#### ADVANTAGES OF SCIENTIFIC TRAINING FOR WOMEN

**Prof. Mary W. Whitney** — I entertain the hope that I may live to see the day when the discussion of sex in education will have passed away, will have given place to the discussion of individuality in education. That such a discussion should arise is natural enough; it must needs follow in order of development on the question, Shall girls be educated at all? I am patient with its passing phase, recognizing also that it is not without a certain significance.

I am ready to acknowledge a real value in the query, "Is it desirable that a young woman should study science?" And my answer differs from that frequently given. I see many reasons why she should study science. I am convinced myself that scientific study is of great educational value. All studies can be regarded from two points of view, as a means of character development, and as a preparation for the special daily tasks of after life. I regard the subject now only from the first point of view — its efficacy in developing character.

What then are the recognized peculiarities of a woman's temperament, weaknesses perhaps they might be named by some people; *wherein* would a modification be a gain in character? We knew these feminine peculiarities quite well before Mr Howells depicted them with so skilful a touch; indeed with so loving a touch, for it is not hard to perceive that the inconsequential woman of Mr Howells' stories is a favorite with him. He would be loth, I imagine, to have these, in his opinion charming inconsistencies, eliminated. He would have a small liking for a perfectly self-possessed woman, self-controlled and self-poised. And I fear there are a good many people who would sympathize with him in this preference for feminine inconsistencies and unreasonableness, if only of a sweet and

gentle order. However, in an educational meeting like this we can with safety infer that this point given would not be maintained, and that good judgment and self-control would be preferred to unreasonableness, however charming.

Now a woman is by this common representation, more *emotional* than rational; she is more eager than self-contained. She is governed by the present motive and blinded to the remote one. She is impatient of long processes, too urgent for immediate accomplishment; she is inexact in thought, inexact in word. She "gushes" *too easily*, and runs too easily into undue enthusiasm. Superficial feeling finds expression in superficial language, and her conversation abounds in misplaced superlatives. Some unkind person has said that women seem to have no moral sense in the use of words. Of the qualities of mind subject to educational training, memory, imagination, feeling, reason, judgment, it would be said, that memory, imagination (in its lighter forms) and feeling were predominant, and that reason and judgment were dormant or feebly developed.

Looking to educational training for the elimination or at least modification of these peculiarities or weaknesses or excesses as we may choose to name them, what course of study, the literary or the scientific, is best fitted to accomplish the desired result? Personally I am not willing to concede that there is any course of study, literary or linguistic, which thoroughly pursued will not train reason and judgment as well as the other qualities. Still, if so pursued, that is, with the exact or exhaustive methods first applied to science only, we say they are scientifically pursued; and when our imaginary objector demands a literary or a non-scientific course for a girl he does not mean this kind of treatment; he means the older methods which appeal mainly to memory and feeling. It will generally be acknowledged then I think, that scientific study calls reason and judgment into play in a superior degree. It demands a definite conclusion, definitely stated. What one wishes has nothing to do with the result and can have nothing to do with it. Personal feeling, personal preference must be put aside.

The *fact*, the *thing* must be looked at alone and our feeling about it can only vitiate the process of thought by which the end is to be reached. No vague surmise can hold place. The fact is so, or it is not so. (One must learn to state clearly and simply, because the thought must be clear.) Then, too, judgment must be held in suspense. There can be no jumping at conclusions; — patience, persistence in the mind and in the hand, a patient return to the task after

failure. One must pause to consider whether all causes are taken into account, the remote as well as the near. We learn more speedily than elsewhere, because of the sure and definite end to be attained, that rapid survey and hasty conclusion can not insure correct results. (It is equally true in any study that rapid survey and hasty conclusion can not insure correct results; but because oftentimes in a literary or historic or linguistic subject there may be difference of opinion and authority, the dangers of hasty thinking are not so forcibly borne in upon the mind.)

One may grow enthusiastic in the study of science, and indeed a true student can not but do so, but it is likely to be a controlled enthusiasm, because one can not easily lose sight of the possibility of error.

Again it is of great advantage for a young woman to deal with *things*. The boy by the very habits which belong to a boy begins in his boyhood to know things by dealing with them. The girl by the habits which are made to belong to her, ceases to deal with things (outside a limited home range) at an equally early age. The boy gains readiness and grasps by this actual contact with objects about him. The girl loses them and grows afraid to act.

If, then, scientific studies develop the logical and judicial faculties, how inconsistent are those who would debar the girl from them. I have heard more than once statements like the following uttered in close succession by those who claim to understand the function of education: "A girl is lacking in logical understanding" and "a girl should not study science." It is as if a gymnast should say: "Here is a weak muscle in the arm, we will tie it down to the side and carefully abstain from bringing it into use." Furthermore I believe as was so eloquently presented last night, that the study of science inculcates to a preeminent degree simplicity and directness of mind. One learns to make sharper distinction between the necessary and the unnecessary. Prof. Maria Mitchell used to say to her students at Vassar college when she heard them dwelling unduly on minor matters of form and ceremony, "Girls, do not neglect the infinities for the infinitesimals." In the external pressure of our American social life, we are in danger of doing just this thing, neglecting the infinities for the infinitesimals, and it has been my experience to find scientific people as a class unusually simple in word and action. They seem to have gained, whether or not from their devotion to science I can not say, a keener sense of the true proportion of things, and a just estimate of real values that is restful to behold.

One other practical value in encouraging the study of science among women I am inclined to mention, though it falls on the professional rather than the educational side. It would be a great gain if the women had sufficient scientific interest and knowledge to lead the children in their *earliest* years to *see* the world of things about them. Thoreau has said something like this: "What is a course in literature or science or poetry or the most admirable routine of life, compared with the discipline of seeing always what is to be seen?" Neglect in forming this habit of intelligent seeing in the beginning years can never be made up for. Most of us are blind walkers through the world of Nature. And those who come in later years to love natural objects must gain by the plodding methods of maturity what might have been almost unconsciously acquired by the spontaneous receptiveness of the child-mind, had that mind been directed to use its senses, to move open-eyed and open-eared through the play ground of its youth.

SHOULD INSTRUCTION AS TO MANNERS AND DRESS BE INCLUDED IN THE CURRICULUM?

Mrs Winifred Edgerton Merrill, *Albany* — Allow me, Mr Chancellor and members of the Convocation, to express my thanks for this opportunity of presenting what I consider to be at present the most pressing and by far the most important question in the education of woman: "Should instruction as to manners and dress be included in our curriculum?"

Our common experience is such as to render it superfluous for me to indicate the value of politeness, of acquaintance with social ordinances, in short of all that gracious and kindly consideration for the convenience, comfort and pleasure of others which can only result from attention carefully and systematically directed to questions of courtesy and good breeding. Moreover, if it be a pleasure to look upon any well-mannered woman, is not the pleasure greatly enhanced if her body be clothed harmoniously? And can a woman more easily attain harmony in color and form in dress, without a study of the subject, than in producing agreeable effects in painting or music or any of the fine arts?

Instruction in good manners begins, or should begin in the nursery, and continues while the child remains under home supervision; and I submit to those members of this Convocation who are parents the question whether such instruction can be utterly suspended for a single week or even a single day, with favorable

results? Why then should it be practically abolished in the college, the high school and the academy? Are our young women and our young men such models of good breeding and good taste in dress as to satisfy those interested in their highest development? Is there no significance in the fact that our sons and daughters interpolate and transform the English of Addison and Irving, of Arnold and Curtis with expressions which shock the ear and offend good taste? Is there no significance in the loud voices and laughter which too frequently supersede "that most excellent thing in woman?" Is there no significance in the fact that the leading Greek student and also the leading mathematical student in a recently graduated class of one of our prominent colleges should be conspicuously careless in matters of dress and behavior? Is there no significance in the following extract from one of this morning's Albany papers, a criticism only too typical of public opinion: "*Will the University Convocation explain why so few women know how to walk?*"

Every so-called fashionable school gives daily instruction in matters pertaining to manners and dress. Should the college, which offers excellent facilities for the study of music, painting and sculpture, for gymnastics and athletic sports, be inferior with respect to the matters which contribute so largely to make young womanhood beautiful and attractive?

I trust that I may be pardoned if I say that I myself, a college woman, would send my daughter to a fashionable school, rather than to a college where little attention is paid to the dress and behavior of its students.

An experiment has recently been made in Boston, in connection with a coeducational college, by giving such instruction. A lady of great culture and high social position, full of deep interest in the welfare of college students has during the past winter been giving a series of talks upon manners and dress. The experiment has been attended with grateful appreciation on the part of the students as well as success in its object.

Allow me then in view of the great need of improvement and in consideration of at least one successful attempt in giving such instruction to leave with the members of the Convocation one question to which I beg them to give their attention: Is a chair of dress and manners practicable and desirable?

## UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

### Discussion

OPENED BY PROF. HERBERT B. ADAMS, JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

In 1867, Prof. James Stuart of Cambridge university gave a course of circuit lectures on astronomy to local classes of teachers in Liverpool, Manchester, Sheffield and Leeds. He adopted the device of a printed syllabus for the purpose of saving the labor of note taking. Some people in these towns objected to a young professor from Cambridge conducting an examination for lady teachers, and so Mr Stuart suggested, at the end of each lecture, certain questions which the teachers could answer at home in their own way, and told them they might send their answers to him by post. He thought he might get a dozen or 20 answers from a company of 600 people, but to his surprise, he got 300. He had promised to look them over and return them, and he fulfilled his contract. This device of written exercises has proved most profitable.

I have mentioned the first three pedagogical features of university extension: (1) the circuit lecture; (2) the printed syllabus; and (3) the written exercise. The fourth feature originated in connection with the workingmen of the north of England. Prof. Stuart was invited to lecture in the town of Crewe. A university man there resident told him that it would be impossible to give an extended course; that one lecture on some striking theme would be enough. Prof. Stuart chose the subject of "Meteors." The lecture was dated for the night of the 14th of November and the night before there occurred one of the most striking meteoric showers on record. Everybody came out the next night to hear about meteors. Instead of an audience of 400 or 500 people, there were 1500. Prof. Stuart endeavored to explain his theme, and made it so attractive that the audience voted to have a full course of lectures on astronomy.

Prof. Stuart was in the habit of using diagrams and of removing them after his lecture, but on one occasion he left them behind. When he came back the next week the janitor said, "Professor, those diagrams have interested the men very much. They have been in here day after day looking at them and I think they have some hard questions to ask you." Before the next lecture Prof. Stuart held a conference and it proved so interesting and profitable, that it



became a fourth and permanent feature of university extension work. Such courses as these were given by Cambridge men to co-operative institutions, workingmen's associations and clubs throughout the north of England.

An examination set by a university man, but not by the lecturer, is the fifth feature of university extension. Let me repeat them in order :

- 1 The circuit lecture, given in different places, but in continuous progressive courses, in contradistinction to the old time single lecture.

- 2 A printed syllabus containing all the topics, with references to good books, and suggestions for private reading and topics for individual study.

- 3 The written exercise accompanying each lecture.

- 4 The conference or class discussion, in which the student has an opportunity to ask questions of the teacher and the teacher has an opportunity to explain points which he has not made clear.

- 5 The final written examination set by authority of the university.

Let me give you a workingman's idea of university extension. An English miner says, "Any town or village which is prepared to provide an audience and pay the necessary fees, can secure a course of 12 lectures on any subject taught in the university, by a lecturer who has been educated at the university, and who is specially fitted for lecturing work. A syllabus of the course is printed and put into the hands of the students. This syllabus is a great help to persons not accustomed to note taking. Questions are given on each lecture and written answers can be sent in by any one, irrespective of age or sex. All the lectures, except the first, are preceded by a class, which lasts about an hour. In this class the students and the lecturer talk over the previous lecture. The written answers are returned with such corrections as the lecturer deems necessary. At the end of the course an examination is held and certificates are awarded to the successful candidates. These lectures are called university extension lectures. They impart, so far as each subject is treated, a university education." He does not mean a full university education, but so far as the subject is treated, it is university teaching of the best kind. It is now the ambition of teachers and of intelligent workmen of England to go to Oxford or Cambridge for even a brief period in summer and there enjoy lectures by university men.

The University of Cambridge has gone so far as to recognize ex-



tension work in a very practical way. The authorities have proclaimed that if an extension student shall pass the examinations in any six unit courses of 12 lectures each, in one group of studies like literature or science, and examinations in two other unit courses in some other subject than the one first chosen, and also examinations in algebra, geometry, and Latin (such as is required for freshmen) the candidate may be admitted to Cambridge, not only as a fully matriculated student, but with credit for one year's advanced standing. By two years' residence at Cambridge, such a student can obtain the bachelor's degree. This step has been taken by the University of Cambridge. Thus the middle wall of partition between the old conservative university and the English people is now broken down. Any natural genius discovered in a rural or manufacturing town of England, by doing good work, by saving his money and by passing these required examinations, can go up to Cambridge and get the advantage of a complete university education.

Do the workingmen of England appreciate this system? Let me quote what one of them says: "It is six years since I attended the first course of university extension lectures, and I have attended all the courses since. I can not tell how much I owe to these lectures. They have worked a revolution in my life. I am able to take broader views of questions, and my interests are widened. My life altogether is brighter and happier. There is something about these university lectures different from science and art classes. I can't say exactly what it is, but they do more for you and have more life in them."

This work was taken up in 1876 by the so-called London society for the extension of university teaching. As many as 5,000 or 6,000 students every year now attend courses given by eminent professors. The very best men in London take a hand in this work, particularly in the industrial quarter at the East End. The University of Oxford came into the field in 1878. Cambridge had already instituted the unit course of 12 lectures, and Oxford coming second into the field, found competition sharp. Many communities were unable to raise the necessary amount of money (\$325) for a full course, so Oxford began to give shorter courses of four, six, eight or 10 lectures, on the theory that half a loaf is better than no bread. By giving a shorter course public sentiment can be quickened to a greater demand.

We shall have to adopt the Oxford plan in America. We have been so corrupted, educationally speaking, in this country by variety-show lectures, that it will be very hard to hold a given community to

one subject for 12 weeks. Our Y. M. C. A. committees on popular lectures usually think they must have a different lecturer every week. There is no system, no continuity, in the present method of popular lectures, except in a few of our well endowed institutions.

To what extent has the new system been recognized in England? Throughout the entire realm. Not only Oxford, Cambridge and the London colleges are doing exterior work, but Victoria university, the universities of Scotland and Ireland, and even the universities of Melbourne and Sidney in Australia. Last year there were no less than 40,000 Englishmen in the common walks of life who attended university extension courses, and a large proportion of that number took examinations. Cambridge has about 30 lecturers in the field, and Oxford about as many. They are mostly young men who have a reputation to make and are willing to lecture for small fees. We must train up in this country a similar class of young men who are willing to take the field as members of a staff of extension lecturers. It is not the duty of university or college professors to do this work. If such men have any leisure, it should be devoted to original research and to scientific contributions. But they can train up young men who will increase the popular reputation of their college at the same time that they are advancing the education of the people.

Let me give you one clear definition by an English university man of what the whole system of university extension is: "Advanced systematic teaching for the people, without distinction of rank, sex or age, given by means of lectures, classes, and written papers during a connected course, conducted by men who believe in their work, and intend to do it." There is a certain confidence about that program, but it is just what university men of the younger type propose to do and are doing in England. They have set a noble example to the educators of this country. England is to-day much farther advanced in the development of the democratic idea in higher popular education than are we in America. We are not behind England in the matter of common schools. We set an example to our mother country and to the world in the development of popular education for boys and girls. Years ago we set her an example in village lyceum lectures for adults. But somehow in these latter days the old lyceum system has degenerated. It has now become merely a means of popular entertainment, without much educational value.

The subject of university extension was first presented to the American librarians on one of the Thousand Islands in 1887, and a

vigorous impulse was given to the idea by Mr Dewey, the secretary of this University. The first practical experiment on the extension plan was made in this state in the city of Buffalo. Mr Larned, librarian of the public library of Buffalo, who had watched this English movement and was interested in it, invited a university man from Baltimore, Dr E. W. Bemis, to come there and give a course of 12 lectures on "Economic questions of the day." In addition to a printed syllabus of topics, with all the suggestions that the lecturer could furnish, Dr Bemis employed a good working library. He gathered together in one room of the Buffalo library, books, magazine articles and documents bearing on the subjects of his lectures. Every day in the week he was in that room, where people interested in the lectures could, if they wished, meet the lecturer and under his guidance read on specific subjects. You see, therefore, that this experiment, instead of being simply a passing entertainment for 12 evenings, was a continuous progressive educational course for 12 weeks. It affected the entire city of Buffalo. Every family was discussing economic and social questions. A local branch of the American economic association was a permanent result of Dr Bemis' good educational work.

The Buffalo experiment was a financial success. In England it is not expected that these courses will pay their way. If about half the expenses are met, the English local societies think they are doing very well. In this country we could make university extension self supporting, if it were properly organized, as in the city of Buffalo.

The legislature of the state of New York has appropriated \$10,000 for the higher education of the people in this state by university extension. How is that money to be most judiciously expended. Not one dollar of it should go for the payment of local lectures. Not one dollar should be given to any local society that desires to promote higher education. If the people of this state want higher education in their towns and cities, let them pay for it. This appropriation should be used purely for administrative work in the city of Albany, for the publication and distribution of extension literature, in the preparation of suitable syllabuses and printed forms. Oxford gives each of her lecturers a "traveling library" of 40 or 50 books which he takes with him on his lecturing circuit. He puts the books in sight of his audience and when he has occasion to quote a passage, he takes the book and reads it. The chances are that somebody in the class will look up the passage. It is perfectly legitimate for the regents of the University to introduce such itinerant lending

libraries into the state of New York. There should be a central committee of control here in the city of Albany. I believe some such committee has already been appointed. There should also be a cooperating council, or a university extension council, representing the heads of colleges and the principals of academies throughout the state of New York. There should then be organized a staff of extension lecturers. They could be secured by the joint effort of the board of control and the extension council. The presidents of colleges in this state might discover in their own faculties or institutions one or two young men who are competent and willing to do this kind of work. Generally speaking, college professors are not the men to take the field as extension lecturers. You could count on the fingers of one hand in almost any college faculty the men who could make even a fair success as extension lecturers. There must be a new generation of popular teachers trained up for college and university extension.

On the nomination of the presidents of the colleges, the board of control in Albany might recognize and accredit candidates for the extension staff of the state of New York. These men, belonging to local colleges, ought to lecture within easy reach of their own institutions, either in the college town or in the county in which the college town is situated. There should be another class of lecturers at large, appointed by the board of control, to take the field and go anywhere they are sent. Men who can present vital subjects to the people of the state of New York, like natural science, English literature, American history, 19th century politics, it will be very difficult to discover. It will be difficult at first for such men to make a living income from their lectures. University extension is not a very profitable business. Itinerants can not get on the average more than \$25 a lecture. You will have to engage men who have other occupations, teachers in academies, secretaries of Young men's Christian associations, librarians, etc. By such means, then, by nomination from the heads of colleges and by appointment from the central board of control, the staff of lecturers should be organized and recruited.

There are various existing agencies in the state of New York whereby such courses could be easily introduced.

1 Colleges. The state is full of excellent local colleges, and in connection with such institutions, local courses, town or county lectures could be instituted.

2 Young men's Christian associations throughout the state. Most of them are now working on a false and demoralizing educational

plan. University extension courses should be introduced by responsible secretaries, after the manner described, in continuous, progressive courses on some one good theme.

3 The public libraries of the state of New York are admirable institutions for extension purposes. "Libraries are the people's universities."

4 Churches. Most of our churches have literary associations of one sort or another. With the cooperation of the local clergy courses of university extension lectures could be introduced for the benefit of the young people in church societies. This method has been very successful in the city of Baltimore. But there is danger of giving an extension course an ecclesiastical bias. If one church attempts to monopolize the work, there is danger of others not coming in. University extension should be for the people of a given community, without regard to sect or sex. The public library or town hall is a more neutral basis than the church.

5 Another good agency for extension work is the summer assembly of the Chautauqua type. I came last night from Chautauqua, partly to represent an educational democracy as well as university extension. There has been for nearly 20 years in this state, within the jurisdiction of the regents of the University, a most interesting experiment in higher popular education. I think you will be surprised to learn that some of the best features of English university extension were early devised and introduced by the management of that summer school in southwestern New York. For example, continuous, progressive courses on one theme. Moreover, class discussions and "round tables" have been encouraged from the beginning. Written examinations on public lectures were given at Chautauqua as early as 1875 and as many as 200 students took these examinations. I am confident that the real educational value of Chautauqua is not sufficiently appreciated by the citizens and educators of the state of New York. They think it is a kind of cheap method of gaining a degree, an easy way of getting a college education without going to college. Such critics are greatly mistaken. Chautauqua does not give college degrees. She encourages good courses of home reading and correspondence courses under good guidance by college men. She gives certificates of reading accomplished during continuous courses of four years and for a great variety of special or advanced courses. I am very glad to say that some of the persons who have taken these Chautauqua courses have been incited thereby to go forward to a college or a

university. One of my best undergraduate students in Baltimore is a Chautauquan.

Besides these reading courses, Chautauqua has, every summer, lectures of a college character. For six weeks in the summer time, there are continuous, progressive courses on Latin, Greek, Hebrew, history and political economy, English, French and German literature, chemistry, physics, geology and other sciences. They are given by men from such institutions as Johns Hopkins and Yale universities. All the methods which accompany college class work are to be found at Chautauqua. You might almost say college and university extension is already an accomplished fact here in the state of New York. Chautauqua has been a fact for 17 years. Would it not be simple justice for the regents of the University in some way to recognize the value of the Chautauqua summer school? As an experiment station it would afford an admirable training for young professors who might there learn to say what is really worth knowing and to leave the rest unsaid.

The English early recognized the Chautauqua idea. They admit that the summer schools at Oxford and Cambridge were a conscious imitation of Chautauqua, and that the English home reading circles were patterned after the Chautauqua model. If the English can profit by an American experiment, why should not the regents of the University of the State of New York? These summer assemblies, these Chautauqua literary and scientific circles throughout the state ought to be among the very best local agencies for the introduction of extension lectures.

6 The high schools and academies would also be good centers. The principals of these institutions would be very glad to ally with their work the fathers and mothers of their students by a weekly academic lecture given under high school or academy auspices.

7 The normal schools would afford a splendid means of introducing university extension teaching. In that way you reach the very centers of educational life in this state. You would convert the teachers themselves to this higher system of adult education. The teachers of this country are unfortunately too well satisfied with the existing common school system, which leaves children to themselves at the most critical period in life.

8 Another extension agency is the press, the newspapers of the state of New York. Here in this capitol is one of the best working libraries in America for journalists, for students of history and political economy, of science and literature. Why should not young



men who want to take the field as popular educators or extension lecturers come here when they have graduated from college and study quietly in this library and prepare a series of instructive articles or a course of public lectures? Through the agency of the central board of control, the best of this material might be distributed through the newspapers and schools of the state of New York. Subjects of an educational character, short lectures on interesting topics, prepared here in quiet, could be sent out through the country newspapers and thus a great existing agency be utilized as a means of university extension. The press in every locality ought to cooperate with public courses of lectures. Editors should publish lists of books and thus set the people on good reading matter. Graduates of colleges, men and women, should lead this movement in their own towns. Let me close my remarks by a quotation from one of the first Oxford men to take the field for university extension, Arnold Toynbee. He said to the tired, blasé young men of Oxford, "Languor can only be conquered by enthusiasm, and enthusiasm can only be kindled by two things: an ideal which takes the imagination by storm; and a definite, intelligent plan for carrying out that ideal into practice."

**Pres. Seth Low** — As one of the committee of college presidents which has cooperated with the board of regents in bringing about the present situation of affairs with reference to university extension, I am inclined to congratulate this Convocation and the state on the success which has thus far crowned our efforts. The bill which passed into a law at the last session of the legislature by a unanimous vote has given to the state of New York the proud pre-eminence of being the first state in the world to recognize the importance and possibilities of university extension. There are, I know, those who have the fear that university extension instead of carrying valuable instruction to the many will tend only to deteriorate the standards of higher education by encouraging people to think that the highest and best education can be had outside of the colleges and universities of the state; that home study with a systematic course of reading is the full equivalent of residence at a university with personal and continuous contact with a living instructor.

A great deal will depend, in the results obtained from this movement, on the wisdom that is displayed in its management from this time on. I have not been insensible to the dangers that have been pointed out and which to others have seemed more imminent per-



haps than to myself. An experience connected with Columbia college has led me to expect from this movement, however, if wisely conducted, results of quite another kind. A number of years ago the trustees of Columbia college received a petition very numerously signed, to admit women to the college. The trustees were not prepared to accept the idea of coeducation. On the other hand, they did wish to make some response to this manifestation of desire on the part of women for higher education, and so they created what was called "the collegiate course for women" and offered to those who pursued it the Columbia degree. They were to have the advantage of advice and consultation with the regular professors of the college, but they were to do their work away from the college. One or two degrees have been given by that method, but it was a method that proved entirely unsatisfactory, both to the college and to the students. The young women felt that in the absence of instructors it was of course idle for them to expect to complete the regular college course of Columbia, and the college felt, with a full recognition of the efforts made by these young women, that they did not do work that entitled them to a degree as compared with the students who were in residence. The result of that experiment was the foundation of Barnard college. Barnard college had its origin entirely from the desire of young women who wished the Columbia degree and to secure the systematic education which that degree presupposed, and Barnard college has supplanted the demand and place of the college course for women, having ascertained by experience that the two things are not identical or equivalent. Columbia college gives its degree to the students of Barnard college on precisely the same terms as to the young men at Columbia; the curriculum at Barnard is the same as at Columbia; the instruction at Barnard is given almost entirely by the instructors of Columbia. Where such instructor can not be spared a substitute must be approved by the president of Columbia; the entrance and the semi-annual and annual examinations are conducted by Columbia; so that at all points Columbia makes itself responsible for the standards of Barnard, and at the end of such career the students of Barnard receive the degree on precisely the same terms as the students of Columbia themselves. I submit to this Convocation, I submit to the regents and the chancellor that that experience of Columbia indicates very clearly one point of danger in connection with this whole movement. I have thrown my heart into this movement because I have the feeling that this higher education taken out into

the state will have precisely the same influence upon the people who follow it that the college course for women had upon the students of that college. It will be good so far as it goes, and one of its best results will be to make those who profit by it realize that there is something better and desire that. If they can not get it for themselves, they will try to get it for those dear to them. And so I am confident we shall find that the more widely we educate the people into sympathy with higher education, the more strongly the colleges and universities themselves will be upheld in their own work.

But the regents, it seems to me, would make a fatal mistake if in beginning this experiment they offer the degree. They have heard to-day from the admirable presentation of Prof. Adams that after 10 or 15 years of continuous effort in England, after a recognition of the thoroughness of the work, which rests, not upon fancy but upon administration, the only progress toward the degree has been to secure from the University of Cambridge the admission that they will count so many courses successfully passed as the equivalent of one year of residence. You have heard that Chautauqua, though having the degree-granting power, has not given a degree, and they have been at work since 1874. You have before you the experience of Columbia, where we have tried precisely this thing, and both for the sake of the students and for the sake of the college, the tender of the degree on certain conditions has been withdrawn. If the regents hope to command the enthusiastic sympathy of the colleges and universities of the state in this matter, they must content themselves with a certificate of work done and withhold the degree. We have got to face in this country, by common consent, questions in the operations of this system which do not exist with the same force in England. We have not perhaps so large a body of men so situated as to form a lecturing staff. I think we can develop them, but the early stages of this enterprise are sure to be experimental. They are worth making and I am confident that the result will justify the attempt, provided that the regents in their part of the work will take no step that will not carry with it the enthusiastic support and confidence of those to whom the state has given the care and custody of the degrees in their own work. I do trust that in this effort to carry university extension to the people, we shall be permitted to feel that we are engaged in a work of unqualified profit and not be compelled to feel that we are undermining the institutions in their efforts to raise the academic standards of education.

**George Henderson**, *secretary of the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, Philadelphia* — In the few remarks which I have to offer on this work I shall endeavor to tell you something of its practical operation, and of the work which the American Society for the extension of university teaching has taken upon itself.

One of the most encouraging signs which has attended our efforts, has been the hearty cooperation which we have received on all sides. To the first meeting, which was called by Provost Pepper of the University of Pennsylvania to discuss the feasibility of organizing the work in this country, some 50 of the distinguished educators in and around Philadelphia were invited, and it is remarkable to state that 45 of this number were present, the rest sending notes of regret expressing deep interest in the work about to be entered upon. After the formal organization of the society our first step was to address a letter to the faculties of the universities and colleges adjacent to the field of work, and again we were surprised to find that seven eighths of these very busy men were glad to welcome the new movement and wish it God-speed by their active cooperation.

The libraries, Christian associations, and similar bodies having halls, were then approached and asked to lend their assistance in the organization of what are technically known as "local centers." Again we were surprised at the interest manifested, nearly all of them proffering the use of their halls.

We entered upon the work with the determination of making a thorough test and of having at least, during the succeeding winter, six local centers in active operation. The courses were opened and it was not long before we saw that instead of being compelled to push the organization we should have to restrain it, and while we expected the organization of only six local centers we actually organized 25.

The first course opened on the third of November at Roxborough, a suburb of Philadelphia, in connection with the St Timothy's workmen's club. This being the first course to be opened it is not surprising that its financial success was not complete; but, from the educational standpoint it was in every respect satisfactory, some eight or nine students passing a rather difficult examination. Of the other centers fully three fourths of them carried their courses through with profits ranging from \$800 down. There were courses organized in history and literature, both American and European, geology,

zoology, paleontology, botany, animal life, psychology, algebra, mathematics, chemistry, electricity, astronomy, etc.

We had not been long at our labors before it was seen, from the wide-spread nature of the demands made upon us, that we had a distinct mission to carry the ideas of the movement to the country at large, and on the 23d of December, 1890, there was formed the American Society for the extension of university teaching, which has set before it the task of organizing the work in every section of the country, and of bringing it to the very firesides of the people.

To accomplish this we have three distinct things before us :

1 To arouse the colleges and universities of the countries to the possibilities of the movement.

2 To interest the great mass of the people in higher education.

3 To collect, publish and distribute all information relating to the work. About the latter part of this month we shall commence the publication of our monthly journal to be called *University extension*, which will be devoted to the interests of the movement. We are endeavoring to help those who help themselves, and we are heartily cooperating with all who are interested in the work.

The pedagogic method is rather unique in character. The lecture is designed to be suggestive and inspiring. The class, which immediately follows the lecture, is intended for a fuller elaboration of the difficult points that have occurred in the preceding lecture. The word "class," however, is a very unfortunate term, for it is not a class in the college sense of the word. While questions are encouraged from the students, in the best conducted classes there is very little of this done and there is rarely any questioning of the student by the lecturer. The weekly exercises are not designed to be an examination, but rather a means of training the students to work. To that end they are encouraged to consult all the references and secure in addition, where possible, verbal information. The syllabus contains in addition to the abstract of the lecture, a list of works for collateral reading, and the questions, based on each lecture, form the basis of the weekly papers; and, as I said before, as it is our intention to train the students to work they are put, as Mr Moulton said, in a "coaxing way." The first question will perhaps be so easy that it can be directly answered from the syllabus; the second will require a little of the collateral reading; while the third, in addition to all the reading required, will perhaps necessitate some independent thinking.

Some have found fault with this method; that it was cumbersome

and not applicable to our conditions, that it needed great modification and adaptation. I can only say in reply that we have successfully employed it in all our courses and shall continue to do so. Whatever method is employed it seems to me there are two tests to it; it must respond: first the lectures must be attractive, and second, work must be drawn from the student. If it answers these two, then I think its university extension character is demonstrated.

There are many important questions to be solved in connection with this movement, and in conclusion I wish to express a confident hope that we shall solve them in a way in which only Americans can do.

[Prof. Franklin W. Hooper gave an interesting account of the extension work done by the Brooklyn institute, but the paper has not been furnished for publication.]

**Regent T. Guilford Smith**—In the address this morning of Dr Adams, allusion was made to the first experiment of Buffalo in the matter of university extension. As I took some interest in that experiment and was one of the pupils who listened to Dr Bemis, I venture to say a few words with reference to it. In the first place, none of us who took part in that experiment dignified it by the name of university extension. It was more an effort on the part of a few men and women of Buffalo for the systematic study, in this case, of economics. It was a financial success, but that did not affect the question seriously. The query would very naturally arise, "If you did so well in this first experiment, why didn't you keep it up? Why didn't you get up other courses?" Those of you who were present here last winter at the hearing before the joint committees of both houses of the legislature, when the bill for appropriating this \$10,000 was discussed, will no doubt recall the very good arguments which were brought to bear by various college presidents, notably President Low, which fully explained at that time the necessity for state aid; and I would therefore state that the reason that Buffalo has not continued these courses of instruction is because there seemed to be no method or sustained effort. It was not anybody's business to get up these courses and the mere fact that Dr Bemis happened to come to Buffalo and was persuaded to remain, was more a fortunate accident than a preconceived plan on the part of the Buffalo citizens. The \$10,000 given by the state to the regents will fill just such gaps and will enable the various localities to have a center to which they can apply and where men can come and offer their services in case they wish to take up this matter of

teaching. This has been supplied in Philadelphia by the American Society of which we have heard this morning. While we have in the neighborhood of Buffalo, Chautauqua, that is exclusively a summer school, and, without this effort on the part of the regents, Buffalo and other localities would be in the same condition that they were in before the first experiment was tried.

Another point is the matter of degrees. I do not think that any one of the students in the Buffalo experiment ever thought of degrees. I do not say that they did not care about them, but they had no such notion when they entered into the experiment. The whole idea of the experiment was study and improvement and when they got the fact they did not care so much about the certificate. I am inclined to think that that matter will adjust itself throughout the state and that earnest men and women who want the kernel will not care about the shell. The main thing is to get the information, and the question of getting a degree and using it as an equivalent I think is a matter which can be very easily regulated. Certainly the board of regents I think may, in this particular, of all others be trusted to prevent anything like the deterioration of the value of any diploma.

**Warden R. B. Fairbairn** — The primary or introductory school, college and university — I do not think I have ever heard the limitation of these institutions brought out more clearly and distinctly than they have been in this Convocation. It appears to me that it is an advance, and that we shall understand each other better and shall keep much more closely within our own limits. I should not have arisen to say this except in answer to some remarks made by Prof. Hooper. The university he has defined to be a place for original investigation, and he says that persons going to a scientific, medical or law school are not within university teaching unless, after that, they shall go into original research in the departments of these different schools. I think I do not misrepresent what the gentleman has said. It appears then, that the only university in the United States would be the Johns Hopkins university, and possibly in Germany a great many of the universities that we have regarded as great would be extinct. I think the less original investigation in some things, theology for instance, the better.

**Chanc. H : M. MacCracken** — By way of preface, I will say that I have taken an interest in university extension for a long time. Dr Adams has written a book of the genealogies of uni-



versity extension and kindly quotes some words of mine spoken some seven years ago in the city of London. Inasmuch as I have not changed the sentiments therein expressed, I will read some of them :

One of the first Americans to appreciate the significance of English university extension was Dr H: M. MacCracken, now chancellor of the University of the City of New York. He was present at the educational conference held in connection with the International Health Exhibition in London, 1884. An interesting paper upon the "University extension movement" was there read by Albert Grey, M. P., and Dr MacCracken took part in the discussion. He said: "In America they have a good many Yankee notions, but they had nothing in the United States of America at all like the proposed scheme. The closest thing to it was what was called the Chautauqua system." He proceeded to describe that system and said that it lacked "that vital and necessary part of an educational system which the English university extension did not lack, namely, the teacher's presence, the teacher's questions, and conferences with those who were to be his pupils." He expressed the hope "that the scheme might extend across the ocean and be taken up in the United States of America." "Dr MacCracken afterwards, in 1887, gave an address on university extension before the resident members of the Phi Beta Kappa club in New York city, but the address was not published."

I am indebted to Dr Adams for this, for I had forgotten those words and I think that there is perhaps room for Prof. Hooper's calling this movement a misnomer, and I think when we consider a moment we shall see that it is a misnomer. I look at it in this way. Here is a great trunk-line and along that line some towns, some villages, some cities, here the Smithtown extension, there the Jonesburg extension. Now the extension is not the main line, but it is a very respectable way for some people to get on the trunk-line.

Now I think the university extension movement is like a university in this; that they do not try to learn something about everything as they do in a college, but they try to learn something about a particular field of knowledge. In that, the university extension teaching is like the university itself.

I indorse most heartily what was said by my neighbor in New York city, Pres. Low. I had not heard that there was any intention of conferring degrees in connection with university extension teaching in the state of New York. I deprecate as strongly as he does any such suggestion, any deliberate proposition of anything of the kind. In fact, I have very serious doubts as to whether there will not be a great deal of friction created in this state of New York if our rulers, the University regents, proceed with the conferment of degrees on examination in any line of study or instruction whatever. I am ready to accept most cordially University regents as our



legislators, as our directors in this matter of education, but it seems to me that for them to at the same time enter into this academic work of conferring degrees, is sure to lead to what may be unfortunate. If they confer degrees of law or medicine in this state, I fear that we shall have a great deal of sharp criticism to make on them. If they are more strict than others with the degrees, then people will perhaps have a great deal of unpleasant criticism to make of Columbia and of the University of the City of New York.

**Prof. B. I. Wheeler** — It seems to me a matter of large importance that has been brought before us by Pres. Low. I think all of us in the colleges feel that it touches a common interest. We shall regard ourselves as vitally assailed by the proposed university extension movement, if it shall assume to set up standards of its own at variance with our recognized academic standards, or become anything else than an extension of our existing university system. I believe in university extension, but I can not believe in it precisely as Mr Moulton has represented it in this country. I have felt that he often attempted to apply to our university system a criticism that belonged at home in England. He failed, I think, fully to appreciate how much more sensitively our American higher education is adjusting itself to the popular need, than is the case in England. Our universities are in closer touch with the life of the people. The university extension movement in this country should not separate itself from the existing university system, but should use it and build upon it. The existence of the board of regents in this state furnishes a unique opportunity. The various educational powers of the state can be through them brought into concerted and harmonious action in forwarding this movement. It would be fortunate for the colleges themselves to be united in such a movement. The different colleges in this state are not competitors. They can not afford to be. The common foe, which is barbarism, is too strong. We look to the regents now to marshal us for this new inroad into the enemies' territory. It would be a sorry misuse of their opportunity, if they should spend their strength in undoing — in changing standards which by long effort and through long experience the universities have created. I remark, I think, such an interference with established standards in the conferment of the degree of "bachelor of library science." This is to be really deplored. It involves a lowering of the term "bachelor." When the regents undertake to tamper with degrees they generally, I notice, go wrong.

I trust the university extension movement may be instituted without using the academic degrees and so interfering inevitably with established university standards.

**Inspector Francis J. Cheney**—I crave your indulgence a moment to state some conclusions at which I have arrived as the result of some observations I have been permitted to make while it was my pleasure and my duty to go about through the state before the Civil Service commission entered its armory and took down its weapons and went out gunning for victims, and ran across the inspectors of academies of the state about the first thing. Since the university extension bill was introduced into the legislature, while I was in the western part of the state, which is perhaps less represented upon this floor than any other part so far as numbers are concerned, I found that there was frequent inquiry with reference to university extension and I was asked frequently to speak upon that subject. Sometimes I made bold to do so, on the principle of my friend, Mr Bardeen, who told us last night of being able so to do because, although he knew very little about the subject, he was sure his audience knew just as little about it. I found it a matter of frequent inquiry. People wanted to know about university extension, and the result of my observation in this matter is that I believe that there is a great opportunity to build up in the Empire state this grand system for the higher education of the people, which has been so lucidly explained to us by Dr Adams, notwithstanding the fears that have been expressed by some gentlemen as to what it will lead to. I believe there is a place for it, and that the people, especially those who are connected with the secondary education of the state, are waiting for it.

I was very glad to hear Prof. Adams speak a word in behalf of the Chautauqua movement, which I have studied for the past two years with some care. When I learn that, down in the wilds of Ulster county, where in some parts the population is so sparse that in order to get out a respectable vote they have to vote the bears, a young boy who hardly knew what was beyond the confines of the mountains, found right at his door the advantages secured by the Chautauqua system, so that his mental and I believe his moral horizon was greatly widened; that he was given a larger view of life, and so was led on to inquire further into the advantages of an extended course of study, and because of the stimulus already furnished went on to college and graduated with a degree as the result,

this to me is a full vindication of that movement. As this phase of university extension has met with large success in this state, so I believe that the scheme under contemplation by the regents of the university will, if rightly executed, work a revolution in the higher education of the masses of the commonwealth.

**Sidney Sherwood, *Johns Hopkins university*** — I am not connected officially in any way with any institution of this state, yet I think I have a claim on the attention of this audience. I have been engaged for a year or two in looking into the early history of this University, and I find there something which may be of use to us to-day in the consideration of this question. At the close of the revolutionary war a movement was started for the foundation of a university in this state. The object of this university was said to be the extension of learning throughout this state. It was a movement started independently of the colleges of the state and seems to have had its origin mainly in the effort of the different country districts throughout the state to obtain a system of academies, but the movement was seized on by King's college, at that time defunct through the war. Immediately after, a measure was introduced into the legislature and the remaining governors of old King's college brought in a petition in which they stated the desire to have the name changed to Columbia college and become the mother of a university. That petition was taken up. Columbia men were at that time filling important positions in the government of this state and in the legislature as well. The law was passed establishing the Regents of the State University. There was in this a recognition of the political existence of the state. The regents were appointed, two from each county. Columbia college found that this did not work well. It was the only college under the control of the regents. Within six months after the passage of this law there was an amendment by which 23 new members from New York county, all Columbia men, were packed into the board of regents. In this way Columbia for three years secured the control of the board of regents and the only care of the University during these years was the care of Columbia college.

Mr Chancellor and members of the Convocation, it seems to me that in this respect history ought not to repeat itself. It was a movement originally along high ideas. The question of coordination of academy, college and university should there have been settled. America and France at that time were full of educational

ideas and the French educational ideals had never yet been reached. The whole progress of this century in education has been toward these ideals.

The University as originally constituted had the power to confer all degrees higher than M. A., other degrees were left to the colleges. Right here we have the solution to this question. Let the University leave to the colleges of the state the conferring of all degrees up to the degree of M. A.; and then let this University itself as the crown of the educational system of the state confer the higher degrees; and let there be a third, a real university school centered here in Albany and affiliated with the other universities and colleges of the state, where such affiliation is necessary.

**Pres. H. E. Webster** — I was for some reason utterly unknown to myself so far honored as to be appointed a member of the committee to confer with the regents and the secretary of the University in regard to this matter of university extension. So far as the matter has gone, the regents have in all ways and in every particular and in all manners cooperated with the colleges. I am free to say that I do not believe that they will take any action in the future which in any sense whatever can be injurious to college life or college work or college authority. It will be time enough for us to complain when they have done so. I do not believe that they will do so. It is unnecessary for us to say what we would do if anything of that sort should occur for nothing of that sort has occurred. I see, in the activity of the regents as lately displayed a great hope for the educational interests of the state of New York, and propose to stand by them and be with them until such time as there shall be a reason why I should not. I think we have in them a body of men who will help us fight against barbarism. I have no fear or question about the authority and influence of the colleges when the time comes for them to exert it. We can do all we please with the magnificent body of men who have charge of the secondary colleges of the state. I do not believe there is anything to be troubled about at all.

I confess that in regard to university extension, I have never been very clear as to exactly what it meant and I have looked to the regents of the University to put it into shape, to formulate it, but I wish to state that if it is meant that this work can be done by the men in the colleges to-day, I do not believe that it will succeed. We will do all we can, all of us can do something; but you must know that the professors in the colleges have about as much work cut out for them as

they can do, and they can not take up a great deal of outside work. This is true of the body of men in secondary schools also. I do not know of any body of men more thoroughly overworked than the principals of secondary schools in this state. I do not know of any men who are more worthy and who receive less pay for what they do than these men. I hope and believe that the regents of the state will never be found deviating from the high standards which the colleges hold, which the schools hold, but that they will heartily and sincerely cooperate from this time forth. This I think they seem inclined to do and in this effort let us do all we possibly can to help them and do not let us disturb ourselves about their hurting us until they have done so.

**Pres. G. Stanley Hall** — If this movement in New York state means the extension of the University of New York, I for one feel heartily in sympathy with it; for the development of the influence of the state University here, which is so very striking to me at this meeting, seems to me to be only wholesome and salutary, and I congratulate the University of the State of New York on the prospects, and on the achievements of the past year. If university extension has anything to do whatever with universities, I am decidedly opposed to it. I agree with the first part of Mr Hooper's address. A university must in the main devote itself to research; it must do teaching, but its teaching is of a degree which would be utterly worthless for university extension. In England two or three years ago I was told by the dean of Christ's college, Oxford, that the reason why university extension had been undertaken with such vigor there by the old universities was at bottom in order to forefend future parliamentary investigations. It was to demonstrate to the people of England that the universities were doing something for those outside. When I went to London I visited several governors of the intermediate schools and I was told by two of them that they regretted that the universities had got ahead of them. In England there is a large body of fellows who are far better off doing this work than in doing anything else. That is not the case here. I am engaged at my institution in trying to develop a university, to get a university worth extending; and it is a very laborious task indeed — in this country specially laborious — because the word university, and the thing it ought to signify, is the noblest thing in the vocabulary of education and in the history of education.

I think this movement of university extension is a very important

one. I am heartily in sympathy with it, but it has nothing whatever to do with the university proper except at one point, and that is in connection with the pedagogic department. For my part I say "hands off" the university proper, either its pupils or its professors.

**W. A. Purrington, *New York city*** — I was asked to come here by Secretary Dewey rather to give you a few modern instances than to lecture you on your own special knowledge. The term university extension in medicine, if it means anything like extending the system of instruction in medicine to suit the university extension course of three months, would be to me a most abhorrent idea. But what might properly be called the extension of the influence of this University in medical education has a degree of interest. University extension in the sense in which that term is now used, I believe would be absolutely inapplicable to the study of law or medicine and that to offer instruction under such a system in medicine, specially, would be most harmful. But the extension in this state of the University's supervision over medical education by depriving the medical diploma of its licensing power and vesting that power in the regents, to be exercised through a central board of examiners, is an excellent thing for the colleges as well as for the people. The experience of New York in the matter of the conferring of medical diplomas has been that when the diploma becomes the means of earning a livelihood it has an unfortunate effect on the very men who confer the diplomas. Under this diploma system, so-called, corporations have been formed throughout the country solely for the advantage of their faculties who derive revenue from fees. The fact that their diplomas have carried with them the right to practise medicine has been the only reason for the existence of these concerns. In the city of New York an institution under the control of the regents of the University sold its diplomas for a petty price to every person that wanted to have the means of carrying on the practice of medicine, and the county had to bring a suit to take away its charter. Even the best professional schools, such as Harvard and Columbia, have notably advanced their standard of scholarship since instructors have felt that in refusing their degree to efficient students they were not necessarily refusing to license the recipients to practise as lawyers or physicians. But this extension of university supervision is a vastly different thing from university extension as that term is here employed. University extension has no function to perform in a strictly professional course of study. Wisely carried out, however, it may



aid greatly in the diffusion of general culture among all classes, including professional men. Its true function would seem to be to widen general culture. To do what Horace said language does, "emollit mores, nec sinit esse feros." So applied it may hasten the day

" When the roughs, as we call them, grown loving and dutiful,  
Shall worship the true, and the good, and the beautiful,  
And, preying no longer as tiger and vulture do,  
Read the *Atlantic* as people of culture do."

**Col. C. J. Wright** — It is my privilege to touch on a new element in this discussion and also to represent perhaps the oldest academy in the state and hence possibly to note some facts that bear on this phase, for do you know, years ago the academies of this state, the old-fashioned academies,— unhappily now many of them have passed away or have given place to the high school,—began the work of giving instruction to all, old or young, rich or poor, who chose to come to their halls. I myself nearly 30 years ago was connected with an academy where the young professors or teachers, fresh from college, full of ideas, ready to impart them, were not only willing to give these lectures, without money and without price, but were glad to do so. Courses of lectures were then instituted and largely attended. Now, if I understand university extension, the academies were then, without knowing it had so dignified a name, trying to do the very work which university extension is now endeavoring to do. I know from my own experience that in every community there are many people who would willingly attend lectures on astronomy, geology, chemistry, literature or art, and who would be glad if they could be advised with reference to a course of reading, who would rejoice if they could have the privilege of asking questions on these subjects.

Of course in large cities opportunities are given to-day. Any one desiring to attend lectures in New York city will have no difficulty in finding the opportunities and most excellent lectures, and so in all large cities. I doubt if there be a large city in the country where any person desiring to attend lectures will not find in Young men's Christian associations and other associations the opportunities they desire. In small places of course it is very different indeed. There are here no learned societies, no Y. M. C. A. buildings with well-equipped lecture rooms and provisions for lectures. But there are in many of these places academies, or what stands in the place of the old-fashioned academy, often with talented



young teachers fresh from the universities, able and willing to talk, who if acknowledgments were properly made, would gladly give their services. In the discussion to-day I have felt that practically the channel through which this work would have to be done would be through the academies and high schools, that is, if the work is to reach the small places. I think every large place already affords opportunities for those who desire them. The small places do not, and there are many in those places who would gladly avail themselves of the opportunities which university extension would give them to increase their knowledge. My experience in this work in the academies is that those who attend the lectures are well-educated people. One reason is, not because the more ignorant would not be glad to go, but the academy is to a certain extent an aristocratic institution. The children of very poor parents who reach that grade feel that they are excluded.

**Prin. J. C. Wyckoff**—So far as this discussion has proceeded it seems to me to have been dealing largely with matters at the top. University extension is like the pioneer who has got to cut his way through the wilderness and clear his home. It has to make both its way and its place. It will have its difficulties that have already been touched on, but to my apprehension the chief difficulty has not been touched on, and that is the difficulty that all of our higher institutions have encountered: imperfect preparation. It has been the complaint from the beginning that the college has to do a large part of the work of the secondary schools. When a set of boys who have been provided with special means of preparation and a special time to make it their duty to be prepared under good teaching, are yet not prepared, what are we to expect of a miscellaneous class that may be assembled in one community without having professed at all to be prepared for the work they undertake? This seems to me to be the chief difficulty, and a difficulty to be met at once. Here are persons in many communities by virtue of maturity in reading and general opportunities of contact with the world and with learned men prepared in a measure to appreciate such a lecture as would be delivered in a college, but how many are there of these? They are like rounds of a broken ladder. Pupils who propose to finish their education in the secondary schools and not go on to higher education may be stimulated by the reach of this university extension.

It seems to me that in taking this work up we must begin in the

natural order of progress and consider the standpoint of the man that wants the advantage of university extension. The first evil that will be encountered in the practical working of this is just here; the want of preparation and the sad disappointment on the part of many who eagerly reach forward for a benefit that they are wholly incompetent to receive. I have a great fear that those hungering for bread will find that they are offered instead a precious stone.

**Ex-Pres. Andrew D. White** — It seems to me very important that there should be a little clearing up of the atmosphere after so many presentations from so many sides. I think all will agree that the questions have been admirably discussed, and yet I fear that Mr Hooper left in one respect a mistaken impression on the minds of his audience. I think that no one can successfully maintain that the whole of university work is research. I think Dr Stanley Hall touched the point when he said that research enters very largely and necessarily into university instruction and that you can not have the highest instruction unless you have research with it. There I think is the modifying clause which I would make in this matter. The two must go together. There is a great deal of higher university instruction which is not research, instruction which can not be done in the college proper but which must go with research. Suppose a man wants the highest instruction; he has to get it in a university, not by research on his own part, but by study with men who have made the higher research.

In regard to another point of Dr Hall's. He says, "Keep your hands off the university" and he assigns good reasons for it. But the regents must rely very largely, as Prof. Wheeler has indicated, on the colleges and the universities. When Dr Hall says "hands off," he means hands off from men who are engaged in specific lines of research or specific lines of teaching. It will be the duty of the regents to find out who those men are, to take them out, to send them into the field, not to take them away from the universities, but to set them to work.

In regard to the origin of the term university extension as bearing on this matter, there is no necessity to call it college or university extension. It took its name in the first place very largely from the efforts of Prof. Stuart of the University of Cambridge, whom I have the honor of knowing. His effort did not mean and was not directed toward the extinction of university research, but it meant

everything bearing upon the higher education of the people and outside that which was generated in the university. That is the legitimate foundation of the word. As regards the reasons why the phrase was used, that was the most historic reason for its use at that time and it will prove to be a guide to its use in the future.

**Prof. J. Scott Clark** — I have listened with great pleasure to much of the theory about university extension. If you will allow me, I would like to lay down three or four propositions that seem to me to be along this line.

1 Any man or woman who closes his or her school life without a knowledge of what constitutes good literature and a taste for it, is not liberally educated.

2 Any one who leaves the grammar school with a knowledge of what constitutes good literature and a taste for it, will become liberally educated.

3 The grammar schools of this state do not send out their pupils with a knowledge of what constitutes good literature and an appetite for it.

4 When through the regents or through other agencies of this state you put into the minds and hearts of the grammar school pupils of this state that appetite for good literature, you will have university extension in the surest and most effective way.

**Henry M. Leipziger**, *assistant superintendent of schools, New York* — I happen to be connected with a movement that seems to me is after all the truest type of university extension. I thoroughly agree with Prof. Hall's statement, and it seems to me that the only object of university extension is to popularize education, to democratize education. The city of New York is not behindhand in this movement. I happen to be the only representative here from the great school system of the city of New York. I will tell you that prior to the establishment of this gracious gift of the senate in the last session, on this floor three years ago a bill was passed giving the board of education of our city \$15,000 to be spent in giving lectures to the people, lectures that contained an education on the lines indicated, and last year in eight of the school houses lectures were given on literature, on science and on art. When we reflect that New York is the most cosmopolitan city in the world, that in its public schools are gathered together Chinaman, Irishman, German and American, you will see what an important part the lecture

system is playing in refining and lifting up the lower elements of our citizens, because these lectures in the public school system are given only to adults. Last year we secured the services of three lecturers from Columbia college, three lecturers from the University of the City of New York, and the other gentlemen were all specialists in their line. If you attempt to adapt academic methods to the large class of people who spend their days in work, you will make this university extension movement a failure. In lecturing to large masses of people, the lecturer must possess not only a knowledge of the subject, but the power of popular presentation. I would therefore say that one of the great things to be aimed at in making the university extension movement the power that it deserves to be, is to add to the equipment of the lecturer the graces of popular presentation.

As an evidence of the success of the lectures in New York city, 81,000 people attended ; 90 per cent of the attendants came regularly every night despite storm or hail or stress of weather. In order to make the thing more perfect, it is proposed next winter that the lectures be coordinated, three or four on one topic ; that a syllabus be printed and on the back of the syllabus the names given of eight or 10 leading books on the subject that can be had at the free libraries. Thus the free public libraries and the free lecture courses work together, so that the masses may become fond of learning and shall greatly desire that, if not they themselves, their children may go to the universities to acquire university culture, and this is the hope of this University Convocation.

**Regent Pliny T. Sexton** — I feel that for myself at least, I have been greatly instructed by the discussion this morning, and yet I feel that in the minds of some of us there does not rest that same conception of the spirit of this educational movement that has come to be called university extension, that I myself entertained and which I believed the board of regents have come to entertain. On former occasions I have discovered that the name university extension was somewhat misleading. I felt it to be in part unfortunate, and still it seems better that it should continue to be associated with the movement than to attempt any change.

As I understand the purport of the movement in this country, in New York state at least, as sanctioned and provided for by its legislature, it would seem to me to be better expressed in the words "educational extension." It is the design of the authorities of New

York state in this movement not to establish any competition with existing educational facilities, not to inaugurate any rivalries with the colleges or universities, or even with the secondary schools. It seeks to supplement existing facilities, and is there not a need of such supplement? Those connected with the public school system must recognize that without a word of explanation. The first difficulty in connection with the public schools that I encountered was to find room in the primary department for the mass of children crowding in upon us, but as the years went on and they went higher it was a source of great regret to me to notice that we had left in the higher departments scarcely more pupils than teachers. The necessities of life had drawn them away from school facilities at the age when they were best able to avail themselves of them. They had gone out into the fields of labor. They are earning their daily bread by supporting themselves or by adding to the support of the large families of their parents, and they are to-day constituting the great mass of its population. If the state enters the arena of public education, it of duty must enter it for the benefit of the great mass of its people; and it is that work which the movement known as university extension seeks to take up in this state. It is for adult education; it is for those who can not go to the schools. Their time is so absorbed, much of it in earning their daily bread, that they could not avail themselves of the school, even though the doors stood wide open. If we are going to educate that class of people, for their own benefit and for the benefit of us all, we must carry to their very doors, so far as we can, such methods and means of instruction as will contribute to that end. The state of New York seeks to do this work and needs the aid and cooperation of all the agencies of higher education in this state. It seeks to do this work through and by the cooperation of the colleges and universities, their professors, their teachers, and their most advanced and capable graduates. The universities and colleges have not done this work heretofore. If they will and can, let them go forward and do it now the opportunity is open to them. If they can not, it is still a work that must be done, if not in the best way, it still must be done in a poorer way rather than not done at all.

As to the fear that has been expressed by some that outside the college walls the student should earn the distinction of a degree, I do not think there need be any misapprehension in the minds of anyone that the regents of the University will ever take any action in that direction that could lower the value of scholastic distinction.

When I tell you that on their own motion they have unanimously resolved that they would not confer any more honorary degrees except by unanimous vote of the board of regents, and then only after the candidate has been named at a previous meeting and every regent has been notified of that fact and has had ample time to investigate the merits of the candidate, I am sure you will agree with me that they are maintaining a conservative spirit in that regard. I think all will admit that there may be men who acquire scholarly culture outside of college halls. I believe that this educational movement will do more, if carried out to its conclusion, to fill up our colleges than any step that could be taken. It will start many a young man and many a young woman on the highroad to higher culture, who will not have gone far in study outside of college walls when they will find to what advantage they can study inside those walls. You will find them running to the universities and colleges. If it happens that after long years a student shall have become as competent a scholar as one who has acquired his learning in shorter years, surely no great harm can come to the cause of education if that student should be recognized by the conferring of a degree.

Last night our chancellor, who so fully recognized the merit of this assembly, said that after your going there would linger here a fragrant recollection of your presence that would perfume these walls all the summer. I am sure it will come to your minds as to mine that the only fragrance in that bouquet would come from the presence of him whom I saw recently mentioned in one of our local papers as being the "consummate flower of American culture;" and yet it may not be known to you all, but I am sure you will not feel that the foundation of higher education has been at all shaken when you learn that the degrees which he wears with such honor were earned *in absentia* and not in residence in college halls.

One more thought. It was suggested to my mind and I thought President White was coming to it yesterday when he spoke of the needs of secondary education in this state, that this was the one branch of popular education that needs financial support because of its great importance and because of its comparative neglect. What shall be done with this great fund now in the New York state treasury, the refunded direct tax? I was so glad when the legislature adjourned. I was ready to thank God for the deadlock in the senate. I believed that the lapse of a year would give us time to organize for the preservation of this fund. To what work of beneficence can it better be devoted than to the cause of secondary edu-



cation in this state? And right there will come into our aid this movement of educational extension. The great objection, the only logical foundation for any objection, that has ever rested in the minds of the people against the appropriation of public money for secondary education, is that in the minds of very many people secondary education is higher education. You, as scholars and teachers, in your analysis of the whole field of education, speak of academies and high schools as secondary education, but by the great mass of people this is looked on as higher education. Large numbers of children go to the primary schools, but not many of them get into the academic department, and so the instruction here given is classed as higher education. The objection has been made to the appropriation of public money in aid of higher education, and made in all sincerity, that the public money should not be used for any education that goes beyond the three R's. Not many people do the thinking. A few have a thought and others repeat it without understanding it, and it gets into circulation without being traced to its origin or logical foundation or without being followed to its logical sequence.

The moneys which come into the public treasuries are raised by taxes gathered from all the people and it was not just to take the money of all and expend it for the benefit of the few; and as few could remain in the school to enjoy the advantages of the so-called higher education, it has been thought unwise and unstatesmanlike to use that money for secondary education to any great extent. A broader view would see that highest education which is possible is for the interest of the state at large. Right here will come in the new university extension movement which will carry secondary education to all the people. It will bring home to every family that the public money in being expended in that way is bringing back to them some of their own money which was paid into the public treasury. While that fact may not be so fully recognized as it ought to be, it still needs strengthening, and I throw out this suggestion: Here rests in the treasury of the state a fund of \$2,300,000. If I should say to you that the cause of secondary education in this state needs an endowment of at least \$5,000,000 annually, you would take exception to the statement. If a movement could be organized in this state I believe that the streams of beneficence could be directed into this channel, and that we could supplement by voluntary contributions this fund now resting in the state treasury and raise it to an educational endowment of \$5,000,000. I think if we should go to the



next legislature and say, " We stand here ready to offer to the state of New York three million dollars for the benefit of the cause of higher education " and ask them to appropriate the balance, I believe they would appropriate that amount. I believe this great fund could be saved to the cause of education and not frittered away.

**Prof. Allan Marquand, Princeton college** — My experience has been so very slight I am afraid I can not contribute much to the discussion. I have the experience of having given really a half dozen lectures in New York and Brooklyn. This was very satisfactory work indeed because it brought me out of the usual rut of college work and obliged me to do my work in a somewhat different method, and I think this is one of the advantages of university extension. This has been the experience of the English professors in this work, for we notice in one of the English reviews that one of the professors one night utilized in his lectures a lantern, evidently for the first time. He had had doubts as to the wisdom of using illustrations in his lectures, but this experiment convinced him of their utility.

A part of the general scheme of university extension work might be helped along if a collection of books might be gathered or a collection of illustrating material such as slides, for they may help towards interesting the people in many ways.

Another direction in which I was particularly interested in this work was the opportunity of indicating to those who were to become teachers the books which I consider to be of the greatest value ; for I suppose it may be the experience of many professors to be deluged with notices of books and requests to use books from publishers all over the country.

**Pres. W : C. Roberts, Lake Forest university, Ill.** — I see that the time is up and it would be very ungracious in me to say anything on this subject at this hour, but I thank you for recognizing that part of the country which I have the honor to represent. I would say this however, that we have organized a branch of university extension in Chicago and I have the honor to be one of three on the executive committee to consider the whole subject and would say that there are three or four things connected with it which I think the whole country should carefully digest before we go forward. One is the existing different condition of things in this country from that in England, and we should not rush into anything without considering how things may work differently here from what they did in England.

In the next place, we are aiming here in all our universities to raise the standards of higher education and we must see how this can be done consistently with this extension movement to reach the people below. I hope all branches will be considered, that we may go forward understanding what we are doing and how far to go without intruding on other interests, and I hope that we can go together hand in hand, one branch following one course and another another course and in that way prevent, somewhat, clashing of interests.

The other point was that we should not interfere in any sense with the degrees conferred by the different institutions already in existence.

At the request of Chancellor Curtis the discussion was closed by Prof. Herbert B. Adams.

**Prof. Herbert B. Adams** — I shall detain you but a moment. I want to leave with you one or two educational facts for your consideration with regard to the positive need of university extension or some form of higher popular education for adults, for persons past the school age. Night before last at Chautauqua I heard some educational statistics from a college president that were startling. This college president said in a large company of Ohio teachers that less than one half of one per cent of the graduates of our American common schools go to college. It is said by Dr Edward Everett Hale that of all the school children in Massachusetts less than two per cent ever enjoy college advantages. If these facts are even approximately true, do they not indicate that there is a positive need in this country of some method which shall give to the American people more real benefit from the higher education? It is not desired to give everybody college honors; it is simply to give men and women some of the fruits of higher education in science and art, in literature, history and political economy. There is no thought in England of a miscellaneous giving of degrees. You will observe that Cambridge simply offers a year's credit for advanced standing to those students who have passed certain required examinations. Remember that Chautauqua strives to do work which the colleges can not do and have not attempted to do. The result has been to increase the interest of the people at large in both college and university. More than one half of the Chautauqua students are persons of mature age. Many are the fathers and mothers of boys and girls. If parents learn to appreciate higher education they will send their children to college. Our universities have everything to give and nothing

to lose by extension. A great advantage may accrue to our college graduates from their going out to address the people. By speaking to a public audience on definite themes they learn the art of presenting clearly what they know. Our best professors often break down as teachers from lack of ability to translate their thoughts into words. It is said that a higher standard of college teaching has been developed in England by the introduction of university extension methods. The whole movement is certain to react favorably upon our American colleges and our college graduates.

**Provost William Pepper** of the University of Pennsylvania, honorary president of the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, was to have taken part in the discussion but owing to an accident he was unable to be present. Sec'y Dewey read from his letter of regret as follows:

"I beg that you will present my earnest congratulations to the conference. It is a fitting recognition of the great importance of this new subject. Your attitude testifies to the permanence and the magnitude of the work. I am deeply grieved to be thus prevented from being present to take part in the discussions. I trust that the American society will be ably represented by others of its officers. Although our work is but at its inception, I am sure that you, just as I myself, feel the widespread awakening of true interest in higher education which it has caused. Let us keep our hands to this good work. Let us work in wise and brotherly cooperation. Let us show to the entire people the reality of our intention to make continuous and thorough educational work along the highest lines, a possibility within the easy reach of every one in the land who desires to pursue it."

**Prof. F. N. Thorpe** of the University of Pennsylvania, in a letter regretting his enforced absence said: "The problem of university extension is practically the coordination of the habit and desire of systematic study throughout the country."

**University extension prize.** The Chancellor read the following report of the committee of award:

**Hon. GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS, LL. D., L. H. D.**

Chancellor of the University of the State of New York

Dear sir: The committee appointed to award the university extension prize respectfully submits the following report:

The prize was to be awarded for the "newspaper or magazine article or essay that shall best present the need, advantages and the most useful methods of carrying on such beneficent work." No limitations were imposed as to the treatment or length, and in awarding the prize the force of the paper rather than the literary form was to be considered. The prize was to be awarded to the author

of the paper, short or long, which in the judgment of the committee would most effectually promote the cause of university extension.

The essays were submitted to the committee for consideration. The articles were read with care by each individual member of the committee and on comparing their individual opinions the members of the committee are unanimously of the opinion that the prize should be awarded to Herbert B. Adams of Johns Hopkins university, for the two articles published in the July numbers of the *Forum* and the *Review of reviews*.

The committee is also of the opinion that the essay by Elmer E. Brown, professor of pedagogy, University of Michigan, published in the Jamestown *Evening journal*, is worthy of first honorable mention, and that the essay by C. W. Bardeen of Syracuse, published in the *School bulletin* for July, should receive second honorable mention.

Respectfully submitted

MELVIL DEWEY

FRANCIS J. CHENEY

RALPH W. THOMAS

MAY SEYMOUR

*Committee of award*

Albany, N. Y., 10 July, 1891.



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## MEMOIRS

### NECROLOGY 1890-91

REPORT OF COMMITTEE BY PRIN. OSCAR D. ROBINSON, ALBANY HIGH SCHOOL

The roll of honored dead is shorter than that presented on some previous occasions; but in the list are the names of some whose services have been long, constant and loyal. Their labors are ended, their voices are hushed, their forms will no more be seen among us; but their beneficent influence in the cause of education will live in the institutions which they loved and for which they labored till generations that knew them not shall enjoy the fruitage of their service and sacrifice. Verily, "They rest from their labors, and their works do follow them."

For most of the briefer notices contained in this report we are indebted to the records kept by Mr C. W. Bardeen of Syracuse. The fuller and more complete notices have been for the most part kindly furnished by life-long friends and coworkers of the deceased.

On July 19, 1890, at Hamilton college, died suddenly of heart disease, Dr Christian Henry Frederick Peters, professor of astronomy, aged 76.

On October 1, 1890, died, Dr Montrose Anderson Polen, professor of gynecology in the University of the City of New York.

During the years 1861-65 Dr Polen rendered valuable service as an army surgeon. He was a man of great industry and author of many valuable books and pamphlets.

On December 7, 1890, in New Brunswick, N. J., died at the advanced age of 83, Dr William H. Campbell, at one time principal of the Albany academy, and later president of Rutgers college.

Among normal school instructors only one death has come to the notice of your committee, that of H. G. Burlingame, for 30 years teacher of mathematics in the school at Brockport. He died Feb. 20, 1891, aged 55.

On February 19, 1891, died at Ann Arbor, Mich., Alexander Winchell, formerly chancellor of Syracuse university and later professor in the University of Michigan.

On February 27, 1891, died Eureka Crannell, principal of school no. 24 and instructor of the Albany teachers' training class.

On March 29, 1891, died Dr Howard Crosby, ex-chancellor of the University of the City of New York.

On March 30, died at Clinton, N. Y., Ambrose Parsons Kelsey, aged 68, Howe professor of natural history in Hamilton college.

On April 17, 1891, died at Evanston, Ill., Charles W. Bennett, former professor of history and logic in Syracuse university, aged 63.

On April 20, 1891, Rev. Henry Darling, D. D., president of Hamilton college, died at his home in Clinton, N. Y., aged 66.

On April 28, 1891, died Edward Griswold Tyler, aged 75, for many years principal of Ontario Female seminary.

On April 30, 1891, died Thomas Jefferson Conant, aged 89, at one time professor in Colgate university and later in the Rochester Theological seminary.

On May 26, 1891, at Ann Arbor, Mich., died Elliott Evans, for many years professor of law and political economy in Hamilton college.

It seems eminently fitting that mention should be made in this report of that munificent patron of education, Charles G. Pratt, of Brooklyn, N. Y., who died May 4, 1891. His bequests to the Adelphi academy alone are said to have aggregated \$250,000 and to the noble institute which bears the name of the deceased, not less than \$3,000,000.

## CHRISTIAN HENRY FREDERICK PETERS

Professor of Astronomy and Director of the Litchfield Observatory, Hamilton College

BY PROF. OREN ROOT, HAMILTON COLLEGE

Christian Henry Frederick Peters, son of a Lutheran clergyman, was born in Coldenbüttel, Sleswick, Germany, on September 19, 1813: he died very suddenly on College hill, near Clinton, N. Y., July 18, 1890.

At the age of 23 he graduated from the University of Berlin as a doctor of philosophy: the patent for this degree expiring after 50 years, was renewed in 1886. In Berlin, Dr Peters was a favorite pupil of the renowned Encke and had already won no little reputation. From Berlin Dr Peters went to Göttingen as a student under Gauss and Weber. In 1838, Baron Sartorius von Walterhausen associated Dr Peters with himself in his scientific survey of Mt Etna. In Walterhausen's journal we find an expression of the position even then held by the young astronomer: "His profound mathematical and astronomical knowledge, his perseverance and indefatigable capacity for work — qualities seldom seen united in such a degree, rejoiced us to recognize in Peters a most distinguished associate of our expedition." In the notes to Humboldt's *Cosmos* will be found citations of Dr Peters' work at Etna as the highest authority.

In 1843, Dr Peters became attached to the great observatory at Capodimonte, near Naples, where he remained until the outbreak of the Italian revolution of 1848. He joined the revolutionary forces and served as an officer of artillery. He was wounded in the left arm by a bullet. After the final defeat of the patriots, he escaped in a small vessel to Constantinople. Thence he crossed to Asia Minor and for some years traveled through Asia Minor and Syria, becoming familiar with the languages there used — Turkish, Arabic, modern Greek, Armenian and Persian. He was already familiar with the classic tongues, including Hebrew, and with all the languages of western Europe. In 1854, at the suggestion of the late George P. Marsh, U. S. minister at Constantinople, Dr Peters came to America. He was first employed on the coast survey and afterward as assistant in the Dudley observatory. In 1858, he became director of the observatory at Hamilton college; in 1867, he was made Litchfield professor of astronomy.

His work at the Litchfield observatory was unremitting save for occasional absences in Europe or in attendance at the National Academy of Science. He observed the total sun eclipse of 1869, at Des Moines, Iowa. Under the auspices of the regents of the University he determined the longitudes of Buffalo, Elmira, Syracuse, Ogdensburg and of the western boundary of the state. In 1874, he was sent in charge of a United States expedition to observe the transit of Venus in New Zealand and was successful beyond any. In 1882, Dr Peters issued and distributed at his own expense a series of 20 star charts; another series was nearly completed at his death. In observing star positions for these charts, at the Litchfield observatory, Dr Peters discovered 47 asteroids. The work on the sun spots and solar physics which he began at Capodimonte he continued here and at one time was engaged in preparing his results for publication.

His published work is scattered through the issues of *Die astronomische Nachrichten* for over 50 years; in Brunnnow's *Astronomical notices* and in the collections of many learned societies. He wrote apparently with equal ease in German, English, French, Italian, Latin, Turkish.

He had a thorough mastery of all the older mathematics and while he had not given time to the details of more recent discussions he was familiar with their basic principles. He was accurately informed in all branches of science and was specially conversant with botany.

Linguist, mathematician, botanist, astronomer, honored throughout the scientific world for more than 50 years, the recipient of medals of honor from kings, associate in learned societies in nearly all civilized countries, presented with the cross of the Legion of Honor by the French republic, he bore no sign but walked modest, retiring, to the last.

He was a pure, honest man. He hated a sham or a humbug. Confirmed in youth as a communicant in the Lutheran church, he was a Christian, though by no means in harmony with the creeds of our American churches.

Dr Peters was a frequent attendant upon the University Convocation and enjoyed the greetings and society of his coworkers most thoroughly.

His example as well as his scientific work has been of great value and may well be held in remembrance as an inspiration to true scholarship.



## REV. WILLIAM H. CAMPBELL, D. D., LL. D.

This eminent scholar, preacher and educator was born in 1808 in Baltimore, Md. He was the son of William Henry Campbell, and Anna (Ditchfield) Campbell. He was left motherless in infancy, and was reared by his father and sisters. The family was connected with the associate reformed church. One of his brothers, the Rev. Alan Ditchfield Campbell, became the pastor of a presbyterian church in Nashville, Tenn. When 16 years of age he entered Dickinson college at Carlisle, Pa. from which he was graduated in 1828. In Dickinson college he came under the instruction of Dr Alexander McClelland, whose successor he afterward became in the theological seminary at New Brunswick, N. J. To the training of this eminent and eccentric teacher doubtless Dr Campbell owed the foundation of that scholarship which was so conspicuous in all his subsequent life.

After his graduation he was a student in the theological seminary at Princeton for one year. Then he continued his theological studies with his brother-in-law, Dr Thomas M. Strong at Flatbush, Long Island, and was licensed to preach, May 3, 1831, by the second presbytery of New York. He was ordained Sept. 1, 1831, by the classis of Cayuga at Chittenango, N. Y., where he preached as the assistant of Rev. Andrew Yates. After a brief period he was obliged to give up this charge on account of ill health.

In 1833 he became the principal of Erasmus hall which was the oldest academy chartered by the regents of the University in New York. He continued to preach as occasion offered during this time and attained a wide reputation for eloquence and power. From 1840 to 1841 he was the pastor of the reformed Dutch church in east New York, which is now contained in the city of Brooklyn. Then in 1841 he was called to the third reformed Dutch church in Albany, N. Y. During the time he was considering the call, the building of this church was burned to the ground. This decided him. He immediately notified the Albany church that he would accept their call. He remained pastor of this church from 1841 to 1848. His memory is still cherished in this scene of his multifarious labors. Besides his pastoral duties he was appointed a member of the executive committee of the state normal school, and was for many years the secretary and treasurer, and with Dr T. Romeyn Beck was conspicuous in its organization and management. In 1848 when Dr Beck resigned the principalship of the Albany academy which he had held

for 31 years, Dr Campbell was appointed his successor. This position he only held till 1851, when he was elected professor of oriental languages and literature in the theological seminary at New Brunswick, N. J. He was universally esteemed as a superb teacher of the eastern languages. By scholars fitted to give an opinion, he was ranked as one of the truly great scholars of his time.

On the death of President Frelinghuysen he was elected president of Rutgers college and entered on his duties in 1863. He devoted himself to the work of this place with all the energy of his character. He set himself to increase the endowment of the college. He undertook to provide it with adequate and necessary buildings. Through his labors and the active assistance of others he secured for the college its designation as the state college for agriculture and mechanic arts. By his energy as a teacher amid all his other duties, he inspired the professors and students under him to a high estimate of their duties and privileges, and gave to many the impulse for good which was not soon lost.

In 1881 at the age of 73 he resigned the presidency of the college. Most men would have regarded their work finished at such a time. Dr Campbell however did not so regard the task laid upon him. The Suydam street reformed church was organized in 1885 mainly through his exertions. A beautiful house of worship was erected, in which he continued to preach without remuneration till 1889, when having seen all debts on the church removed, at the venerable age of 82 he gave up his place to his son and became *pastor emeritus*. He died December 7, 1890, in the 83d year of his age.

Dr Campbell had two distinct lines of greatness. First, he was a great preacher. In his early life he used a manuscript very closely. But even this did not prevent him from exhibiting a power and earnestness which impressed themselves upon his hearers. In his later years owing to the partial failure of his eyesight he gave up entirely the use of a manuscript, and preached without notes. The change is not an easy one to make. But no one will say that even with this fundamental change he was not still a great preacher. There was a simplicity and directness about his discourse, which rendered it marvelously impressive.

Second, he was a great teacher. His pupils in the Albany academy where he taught Latin and Greek, his pupils in the theological seminary where he taught Hebrew and Greek, and his pupils in Rutgers college where he taught moral philosophy, all will testify to his

power as a teacher. There was about him an enthusiasm which carried away even the most indifferent and careless. I remember a wise man once saying to me: "We must not forget to do what we can for the dunces. The bright men can care for themselves, it is the dull and slow who need the help of a teacher the most." Dr Campbell did not forget the dunces. He started in them the sparks of ambition, and he kept these sparks alive by his own fire and enthusiasm, so that when they left him it was rare that there was not an inextinguishable fire blazing within them.

Dr Campbell's publications were chiefly sermons and brief dogmatic treatises. He was too busy with his daily duties to find time for authorship. The degree of doctor of divinity was conferred on him in 1844 by Union college when he was a resident in Albany; the degree of doctor of laws in 1862 by Lafayette college when he was elected president of Rutgers college.

## EURETTA CRANNELL

Principal of school no. 24, and instructor of the teachers' training class

The board has had many occasions to mourn the death of valued teachers; but never before has it sustained a loss that approaches so nearly an irreparable one as that occasioned by the passing away of Eurette Crannell. Educated wholly within our city and state school system, she shone throughout her career of 27 years of brilliantly successful labors as the type of the best outcome of public school training. Gifted by nature with the highest qualities that distinguish the ideal teacher, keen perceptions, a strong will, marked individuality and the warmest sympathy with and love for children, she added to these by constant study and self discipline, the treasures of wisdom and culture and surmounted them by the capstone of a strong and beautiful character.

Throughout her long service, whether as class instructor, as a teacher of teachers, or as a principal of an important school, she embodied the spirit of that lofty educational injunction: "Let us live for our children." Her constant aim was to do whatever lay in her power to uplift and inspire. A generation of youth that came within the range of her influence has been not only well instructed and well disciplined in the direction of mental acquirements, but has also been molded in the more important direction of high moral ideals and of sound and firm character.

But it was as an instructor of teachers that she made the strongest impression upon our school system. Nine years ago she was placed in charge of the special training of all who desired to teach in our schools. Not content with the rich fruits of her own broad experience, she became herself a pupil of some of the most skilful instructors of teachers, and with untiring and self-sacrificing zeal, labored to fit herself still better for her most important work. How well she succeeded we all know. Nearly 100 of her pupils, teaching in our schools to-day, testify, by the high character of their own work, her fidelity, her skill and her success.

Possessed of a strong personality, a vigorous intellect, an all-pervading enthusiasm and an unflinching conscientiousness, she was able to inspire even the mediocre with a new sense of the importance of their chosen profession. In the best sense she "magnified her office," and much of the spirit of honest, sincere work that characterizes those whom she taught how to teach, is due to her earnest injunction.

She was called away while in the midst of the activities of a most useful life. Her highest ambition was to be helpful in making the world better. For this end she labored in the school-room, in the church and in the highways. And her labors were not in vain; for many years to come her name will be cherished and her memory be held sacred throughout our city.

## EDWARD GRISWOLD TYLER

BY N. T. CLARKE, CANANDAIGUA

Edward Griswold Tyler died at his home on Gibson street in this village April 28, 1891. He was born in Harford, Pa., in 1816. His widow, a son and two daughters survive him.

In his death this community has suffered a bereavement of much more than ordinary severity. For more than 40 years he has moved among us as a man of commanding influence and interested in everything that contributed to the elevation of our people in their intellectual and religious life. His great work among us was that of an educator, and especially as educator of young ladies.

On the retirement of Miss Upham from the Ontario Female seminary in 1848, Mr Tyler, who was a graduate of Amherst college and brother of Prof. William Tyler, and who had, with his wife, been associated in the young ladies' seminary at Pittsfield, Mass., took charge of the seminary in our village, and conducted it

most successfully for a term of six years, in which time he made large additions to the building, and so increased the facilities for instruction that the school became one of the most prosperous in the state. He was in 1854 succeeded by Mr and Mrs Benjamin Richards till 1860, when he again returned to his work in association with Mr Richards till 1867, after which Mr Richards succeeded to the entire charge of the institution. Thus for nearly 20 years Mr Tyler was one of the prominent and successful educators in this community. The seminary when he first took charge of it had just finished the first half of its corporate life, and by his hand the last half of that life was shaped, and so a half century of thorough educational work for women was accomplished. It was always a sad thought to him, which he often expressed, that an institution which had accomplished so much, and into which both he and Mrs Tyler had wrought so much of their lives, should be allowed to fall into decay in the community which had been so much blessed by its influence.

Mr Tyler was preeminently a scholar and a teacher, and his influence among us has always been in support of the soundest learning and the most thorough instruction, and there are hundreds of his old pupils to whom the news of his death will come with genuine sorrow.

For many years he was an honorary member of the village medical society, and as such, was always prompt to take his place among the members in the preparation of papers for the meetings. His papers were always listened to with deep interest and were of high character and value.

He was one of the prime movers and active members of the Social union, which flourished several years among us, and also of the Wood library association.

He was more than an educator, he was a citizen of high character and influence. He was bold and fearless in his advocacy of all moral reforms in the community, a stout defender of the doctrines of the church of which he was a prominent member and efficient officer, a hearty supporter of the various forms of Christian activity, and especially interested in the religious education of our youth.

Mr Tyler was a genial man, one whom a friend was always glad to meet. Even during the last few years, while he has been laid aside from any work, his genial spirit has never forsaken him, and I can bear testimony to his cheerfulness, as I have often met him under circumstances which would seem to forbid it. He seems to me like a colaborer, as our educational work ran along together, and

so his death seems like the death of a dear friend, which gives me a sense of great personal loss, a loss which many in the community will share.

## AMBROSE PARSONS KELSEY

Stone Professor of Natural History in Hamilton College

BY PROF. EDWARD NORTON

(Reprinted from the *Hamilton literary monthly*)

Professor Ambrose Parsons Kelsey died at his home on College hill, at 8:45 on Monday, March 30, 1891.

He was born in Sanquoit, Oneida county, August 30, 1833. His father died four years later. In his plans for a liberal education he was aided by his mother's unwearied care and sympathy. His preparation for the sophomore class in college was made in the Sanquoit academy, while Rev. Dr M. E. Dunham was its principal. His preference for the natural sciences was very decided, and in senior year he received the first Underwood prize in chemistry.

After his graduation he taught the natural sciences for one year in Wilson academy. In 1857 he was appointed principal of Cincinnatus academy, and held this position for two years. In 1859 he was called to the chair of natural sciences in the state normal school at Albany.

Two years later he removed to Farmington, Me. Here his influence was prudently used in shaping the legislation that resulted in the establishment of the first state normal school in Maine. As its first principal he was largely intrusted with the plan of the building, the arrangement of its studies and the selection of its teachers.

In 1865 Professor Kelsey succeeded Rev. Dr David A. Holbrook as principal of the rural high school in Clinton, which Rev. Dr B. W. Dwight had founded. After the burning of the high school building he purchased the homestead on College street, long occupied by Professor Avery, and conducted the Clinton grammar school until 1873.

September 9, 1876, he was elected principal of the state normal school at Plymouth, N. H., and he at once entered upon his duties. While in this position he delivered many interesting and instructive lectures, and among the most interesting was one on "Methods of teaching," delivered before the Teachers' association of New Hampshire in September, 1878.

Professor Kelsey was called to Clinton in the fall of 1878 to accept the Stone professorship of natural history in Hamilton college, a



position he has occupied since. This appointment was well received as that of "a successful teacher of geology and other branches of natural history in the several institutions which had sought his services. As professor of natural sciences at Albany he became familiar with the best methods of instruction. As the organizer of the normal school of Maine he was intrusted with duties for which only teachers of acknowledged ability and skill were selected. During the past two years his administration at the state normal school at Plymouth, N. H., has received the highest approval and fully justified the confidence with which he is now called to a professor's chair in Hamilton college."

In 1881 he received the degree of Ph. D. from the trustees of Bowdoin college. Twice he crossed the Atlantic, and thus broadened his preparation for the duties of his department of instruction.

In his home life Professor Kelsey was most fortunate and happy. He was married December 24, 1863, to Ellen V. Goodenow, daughter of Hon. Robert Goodenow, of Farmington, Maine, who survives her husband with three children: Mrs Peter Lee Atherton, of Louisville, Ky.; Mrs Anthony H. Evans, of Lockport, and Robert G. Kelsey. His younger brother, Professor Charles Kelsey, also a graduate of Hamilton college, was for many years superintendent of schools in Marquette, Mich.

Professor Kelsey's personal attachment was very strong for those he had guided in preparing for college or in their undergraduate studies. By his kindly nature, as well as by Christian principle, he was prompted in dealing with students to the constant exercise of faith and hopeful methods. The hospitality of his beautiful home was refined, gracious and abundant. The tidings of his death will bring genuine sorrow to many loving hearts in distant homes.

The *Rome Sentinel* says: "One of the chief traits of Professor Kelsey's character as a man was his great generosity. He seldom allowed an opportunity of doing a kindness to pass unused. He was a scholar of great ability, a most pleasant man to meet, and a hearty devotee to the sciences which he had made a life study. It was his practice to draw from the works and laws of nature some lesson of practical or divine significance. When engaged in the explanation of natural history he seemed to be lost in the wonders of nature and his hearers could not fail to catch the spirit of wonderment. It is the universal testimony of those who were brought under him that an unkind word was never known to fall from his lips. Even the most refractory or the dumbest student could never point to a time



when his patience was exhausted. To an unusual degree he was always ready and willing to discommodate himself to give an explanation or to make clearer a point in the studies. Under him the study of the sciences was made a pleasure rather than an onerous duty."

### REV. HOWARD CROSBY, D. D.

Ex-chancellor of the University of the City of New York

(Reprinted from *New York Tribune*, March 30, 1891)

The Rev. Dr Howard Crosby was of Knickerbocker descent, and came from a family distinguished for its wealth and public spirit, and connected on both sides with some of the best-known personages of revolutionary and state history. William B. Crosby, his father, inherited large wealth from an uncle, Colonel Henry Rutgers, who endowed the college of New Brunswick, N. J., that bears his name. Dr Crosby's grandfather, Dr Ebenezer Crosby, was a professor at Columbia college. Back another generation, and General William Floyd, his great grandfather, signed the declaration of independence and was a member of the first national congress. A book of genealogy traces the Crosby family to Edward 1 of England. Nearly 600 years after the birth of King Edward, Howard Crosby, the 19th in descent, was born on February 27, 1826, in Rutgers st. Preparing for college, chiefly at Dr Huddart's school in Bloomingdale, at the age of 14 he entered the University of the City of New York. His father had been one of the founders of the new institution. De Quincey boasted that he began to read Greek at the age of nine, but Dr Crosby was three years younger than that when he began to study the language. He at once took the lead in his college class, and was graduated first in Greek in a class of 45 members; his college professor in Greek was Dr Taylor Lewis. When in later years he sat as chancellor, criticising the rhetorical efforts of trembling freshmen, he sometimes encouraged them by telling of his maiden attempt as a chapel orator: whether in the body or out of it, he did not know; that he was terribly frightened, he never doubted.

After receiving his diploma in 1844 he went to Dutchess county and worked on a farm for three years. In 1847 Dr Crosby married Miss Margaret Givan, and in 1849 the young couple started on a two years' trip in Europe, Egypt, Arabia and Palestine, besides spending some time in Greece, studying the language. As a memento of the tour, Dr Crosby in 1851 published the *Lands of the Moslem* in which he told in a graphic manner many of his oriental experiences.

for 16 years, and the more I have seen of him, and have found how humane, how gentle and how tender his character is, the more I have loved him. Of his courageous, fearless exposure of what is wrong, it is needless for me to speak." Five years later a similar service was held.

For many years Dr Crosby's regular weekly duties consisted of two sermons on Sunday, a Wednesday evening prayer-meeting lecture, a Bible class for young men on Sunday morning, and a similar class for young ladies on Tuesday morning, daily attendance at the university, a ministers' meeting on Monday noon in his church parlors, a faculty meeting on Tuesday afternoon, the Greek club on Friday evening, also three clerical associations — the Sigma Chi, of which he was president for many years, and the Chi Alpha and Philo; an exposition of the Sunday-school lesson for the *Illustrated Christian weekly*. Besides this weekly schedule, there were many extra calls on his time, such as weddings, funerals, public dinners, council meetings of the university, commencements, occasional addresses at public halls and in neighboring churches, presbytery meetings, the Society for the prevention of crime and an hour each day given to callers. He was also a frequent contributor to the leading religious reviews, periodicals and papers and issued many sermons and pamphlets in the line of his study. There are few educational institutions in the city that have not had his genial presence, kindly voice and good advice in bidding one or more classes farewell, and there is scarcely a charitable or benevolent organization in whose behalf he has not spoken. His audience was by no means confined within the four walls of his church edifice, nor was his field of labor limited by the confines of his parish.

In 1876 his son, Ernest Howard, carried off the honors in Greek at the intercollegiate contest held in this city; another son, Nicholas Evertson, who was graduated from Columbia college in 1883, took the first prize in Greek each year of his course. Dr Crosby had three daughters and he gave the subject of female education much careful thought. In 1883 he signed the petition sent to the trustees of Columbia asking that young women be admitted there as students. At a dinner of the university alumni, the previous year, he had said: "Why should not our university take the initiative in this city in furnishing to women the full advantages of a college curriculum? I do not favor coeducation in its ordinary form. But why may not the morning be given to the young men and the afternoon to young women, in the same rooms, under the same

instructors, with the same apparatus and under the same system of honors and degrees?"

Dr Crosby was elected a member of the council of the university in 1864, and in 1870 he was appointed to succeed Dr Isaac Ferris in the chancellorship.

"Dr Crosby is a man who thinks for himself, says what he thinks, and does what he says," were the words with which Dr Hitchcock, of the Union Theological seminary, once introduced him as he began a course of lectures to the students. Around him centered the best influences and labors for the purification and moral health of the city. Few men, not politicians, have been so roundly abused as he, and with so little reason. He was terribly scathed by the liquor interests, and as unsparingly censured by extreme temperance advocates. "Why do I not reply to my critics?" he said one day: "if I did, I could do little else. It would amuse you to see some of the articles written about me, and some of the letters sent to me. Not long ago I received a paper from the west, with a marked article, stating that I never preached a sermon when I was not under the influence of rum, adding that I always drank a glass of brandy before going to the pulpit on Sunday. My temperance views are these: I hold that unfermented wine never existed, except as an exceptional matter, both in fact and in name; that is, I hold that the name is a contradiction, and has been sometimes (but rarely) given by a sort of linguistic courtesy to grape-juice before it became wine; and I further hold that to keep grape-juice from fermenting is a very difficult thing. Wine the world over, and in every age, has been an intoxicating liquor, if taken in excess. Jesus and His disciples used wine: hence I do not hesitate to use it. If it had been expedient not to use it, they would not have used it. Hence my notion of expediency will not allow me to be a teetotaler. But I condemn the drinking of spirituous liquors as always injurious, and hence so of all wines mixed with brandy, etc. I also condemn all treating as an action of excess. I hold that to preach total abstinence in order to prevent excess is contrary to Christ's example, who, when a total abstinence society existed in Palestine — which also prohibited marriage — began His career by making wine at a wedding! I hold that total abstinence, as a rule or law, can not be preached without alienating sensible men from the religion that preaches it."

On January 10, 1881, Dr Crosby delivered an address in Tremont Temple, in the Boston Monday lecture course, on "A calm view of

the temperance question." He said among other things: "In this address I take no apologetic position. I carry the war into Africa. I have no contest with men, but with false principles. I assert that the total abstinence system is false in its philosophy, contrary to revealed religion and harmful to the best interests of this country. I also charge upon this system the growth of drunkenness in our land and a general demoralization among religious communities. We should act with an even mind on so grave a subject, and see to it that every step we take is solidly founded on right reason. It is this headlong movement which virtually cries: 'The Koran or the sword!' and tramples alike on reason and Scripture in its blind rush — it is this and not private total abstinence against which I inveigh."

The Society for the prevention of crime was organized in the spring of 1877, and Dr Crosby was its president from the first. In December of that year an effort was made to close the unlicensed rum-holes and over 200 arrests were made in one day. Later in speaking of this crusade, Dr Crosby said: "For nine days there wasn't a rum-hole open in New York. That's a historic fact that many persons do not know. That shows what can be done. Now what happened? Mayor Smith Ely — I love to repeat these names — he has the honor of stopping the whole proceedings. He made charges against the police commissioners and in 24 hours the rum-holes were open again."

Dr Crosby was somewhat above the average stature, at once eloquent and distinguished in bearing, and his strongly marked features beamed with geniality and a scintillating intelligence. He was of delicate mould, but possessed of much nervous vigor. "Never speak of Paul as an old man," he said to a sophomore whose first oration he was criticising, "he was only 54 years old at the time you mention; that is just my age and I shall not be old for 20 years yet." When speaking he had a keen, penetrating glance of the eye, but a kindly expression. He was an agreeable, interesting preacher, solemn, instructive, impressive, whom, having once heard, one desired to hear again. The listener was at once struck with his entire want of display both in matter and manner. Any art of the rhetorician that makes the preacher self-conscious he carefully avoided. He was deeply in earnest, and it was evident to his audience that his constant and controlling aim was to bring men to and to build them up in the saving knowledge of the truth. He read his sermons, and the words moved in mellifluous, orderly, deliberate rhythm, as if the

respiration and heart-beat were sound and rich with life. He handled the Bible only as a Christian comes to handle such a book — with a familiar, caressing reverence. It was a rare treat to hear him read a chapter to catch his clearly cut, brief, sententious comment, flashing light and intelligence all the way along: now a sudden disclosure of hidden beauty or wealth of meaning in a weakly translated word, and again such a pregnant allusion, or illustration from the Greek classics, as comes only of consummate scholarship.

Although not a graduate of a theological seminary, Dr Crosby was an earnest presbyterian, but thought less of denominational feeling than of fraternal relation with all branches of the evangelical church. In the presbytery, synod and general assembly, by his sound judgment, courteous manner and admirable powers of discussion, he wielded an influence second to none. In May, 1873, he was the moderator of the general assembly at Baltimore, and presided over the body with dignity, efficiency and acceptableness. In June, 1876, he was sent to the first meeting of the general presbyterian council, in Edinburgh, to represent the assembly, where he read a paper on the "Christian ministry." When the general assembly met in Philadelphia in 1888, Dr Crosby was one of the speakers at the Centennial services, and read a timely paper on "Presbyterianism and Biblical scholarship," in which he dealt ringing blows against advanced higher criticism. The following year the general assembly met in his church, and he took an active part in all the proceedings of that body. He was a member of the presbyterian committee appointed to prepare a report on the revision of the confession of faith. He favored changes in the chapter that relates to the decrees of God, and the presbytery sent him to the assembly for the third time in as many years.

A short time before Dr Crosby was ordained he was proposed as a candidate for congress, but he refused to let his name be used. President Lincoln in 1861 offered the ministry of Greece to him, but this he also declined. On June 12, 1880, at a Garfield and Arthur ratification meeting in Cooper institute, he said: "It is said by some that the republican party was organized in order to put down slavery; and now that slavery is dead, there is nothing for it to do. We do not believe in that. We believe that the republican party had a deeper meaning; we believe that it was formed to support the Union, and that business it will always have on hand." In defending Governor Cornell, two years later, he wrote: "I am an American, a citizen and a native of New York. I never sold my birthright. When

great moral crises arise I will not hesitate to speak as loudly as I can for the truth. With mere local or personal politics I have nothing to do. I add these last words for the sake of those who suppose clergymen are either women or children." When the People's municipal league was founded in 1890, Dr Crosby was appointed to prepare the address to the citizens of New York. He took an active part in the campaign, but carefully refrained from carrying the issues into the pulpit. On Thanksgiving days he discussed municipal and national affairs in no uncertain sound.

Dr Crosby was preeminently a practical man. In dealing with men he tried to meet them on common ground. While discussing the Sunday question before the presbytery in 1882 he said: "We must not forget that we are not talking to presbyterians on the subject, nor to Christians even, but to a great multitude of citizens of whom the Christian element is a small part. We must appeal to voters in a common sense manner. We must be rational and wise, and use common sense when we appeal to the public, and not act as the Jews who refused to fight on the Sabbath and allowed themselves to be cut down because their enemies took advantage of their folly."

Among Dr Crosby's published books are the following: *Lands of the Moslem* (1850), *Œdipus Tyrannus* (1851), *Notes on the New Testament* (1863), *Social hints for young Christians* (1867), *Bible manual* (1869), *Jesus, His life and work, as narrated by the four evangelists* (1870), *Healthy Christians* (1872), *Thoughts on the decalogue* (1874), *The Christian preacher, the Yale lectures for 1879-'80*, *True humanity of Christ* (1881), *Commentary on the New Testament* (1885), *Bible views of the Jewish church* (1888), *The seven churches of Asia; or, Worldliness in the church* (1880), *Book of Nehemiah* and *Notes on Joshua*. Dr Crosby was a prominent member of the New Testament company of the Bible revision committee.

## HENRY DARLING, D. D., LL. D.

Late President of Hamilton College

Henry Darling, son of Judge William Darling, was born in Reading, Pa., December 27, 1824, was graduated from Amherst college in 1842, and from Auburn Theological seminary in 1845. He was ordained and installed at Hudson, N. Y., December 3, 1847; was pastor of Clinton street church, Philadelphia, Pa., 1853-61; of the



Fourth presbyterian church, Albany, 1863-81; was moderator of the presbyterian general assembly in 1881; president of Hamilton college, 1881-91. He received the honorary degree of D. D. from Union college in 1860, and the honorary LL. D. in 1881 from both Lafayette college and Hamilton college. He was the author of many published addresses, discourses and papers on religious and educational topics. He was twice married, September 14, 1846, to Julia Strong of Fayetteville, N. Y., who died soon after; April 29, 1853, to Ophelia Wells, of Hudson, N. Y., who survives, with two sons and seven daughters. Dr Darling died, of capillary bronchitis, April 20, 1891, at his home on College hill. The address at his funeral Thursday morning, April 23, by Rev. Dr T. Ralston Smith, of Buffalo, was a tender, most eloquent tribute to the public and private life of Dr Darling. The pastor and session of the Fourth presbyterian church of Albany were present, to escort the body to Albany, and after a brief service in the church, it was taken to the Rural cemetery.

As a preacher and instructor, President Darling's record will be honorably conspicuous in the history of Hamilton college. He was a successful teacher. He was always thoroughly prepared for the duties of the class-room. His example of industry, accurate attainment and careful search for the truth was a good inspiration to students. His complete self-control and admirable courtesy under trying circumstances added a winning grace to his personal power. Students who were in trouble always found a genuine friend in President Darling. He was a generous helper to the needy and distressed. He was kindly watchful, and knew how to speak words of wise monition at the critical moment. His published sermons and addresses reveal the habit of a conscientious thinker who was careful to test his conclusions by comparing them with the results of other thinkers in the same lines of research. In his home life Dr Darling satisfied the most exacting ideal of a husband and father. And his devotion to his family was responded to with a tenderness of love that will cherish his sainted memory as a priceless treasure.

### HENRY KNOWLES CLAPP

(Reprinted from local paper)

With profound sorrow we chronicle the death of Prof. H. K. Clapp, M. A., the accomplished scholar and teacher, which occurred most unexpectedly and suddenly. He had been a sufferer from



great moral crises arise I will not hesitate to speak as loudly as I can for the truth. With mere local or personal politics I have nothing to do. I add these last words for the sake of those who suppose clergymen are either women or children." When the People's municipal league was founded in 1890, Dr Crosby was appointed to prepare the address to the citizens of New York. He took an active part in the campaign, but carefully refrained from carrying the issues into the pulpit. On Thanksgiving days he discussed municipal and national affairs in no uncertain sound.

Dr Crosby was preeminently a practical man. In dealing with men he tried to meet them on common ground. While discussing the Sunday question before the presbytery in 1882 he said: "We must not forget that we are not talking to presbyterians on the subject, nor to Christians even, but to a great multitude of citizens of whom the Christian element is a small part. We must appeal to voters in a common sense manner. We must be rational and wise, and use common sense when we appeal to the public, and not act as the Jews who refused to fight on the Sabbath and allowed themselves to be cut down because their enemies took advantage of their folly."

Among Dr Crosby's published books are the following: *Lands of the Moslem* (1850), *Ædipus Tyrannus* (1851), *Notes on the New Testament* (1863), *Social hints for young Christians* (1867), *Bible manual* (1869), *Jesus, His life and work, as narrated by the four evangelists* (1870), *Healthy Christians* (1872), *Thoughts on the decalogue* (1874), *The Christian preacher, the Yale lectures for 1879-'80*, *True humanity of Christ* (1881), *Commentary on the New Testament* (1885), *Bible views of the Jewish church* (1888), *The seven churches of Asia; or, Worldliness in the church* (1880), *Book of Nehemiah* and *Notes on Joshua*. Dr Crosby was a prominent member of the New Testament company of the Bible revision committee.

## HENRY DARLING, D. D., LL. D.

Late President of Hamilton College

Henry Darling, son of Judge William Darling, was born in Reading, Pa., December 27, 1824, was graduated from Amherst college in 1842, and from Auburn Theological seminary in 1845. He was ordained and installed at Hudson, N. Y., December 3, 1847; was pastor of Clinton street church, Philadelphia, Pa., 1853-61; of the

Fourth presbyterian church, Albany, 1863-81; was moderator of the presbyterian general assembly in 1881; president of Hamilton college, 1881-91. He received the honorary degree of D. D. from Union college in 1860, and the honorary LL. D. in 1881 from both Lafayette college and Hamilton college. He was the author of many published addresses, discourses and papers on religious and educational topics. He was twice married, September 14, 1846, to Julia Strong of Fayetteville, N. Y., who died soon after; April 29, 1853, to Ophelia Wells, of Hudson, N. Y., who survives, with two sons and seven daughters. Dr Darling died, of capillary bronchitis, April 20, 1891, at his home on College hill. The address at his funeral Thursday morning, April 23, by Rev. Dr T. Ralston Smith, of Buffalo, was a tender, most eloquent tribute to the public and private life of Dr Darling. The pastor and session of the Fourth presbyterian church of Albany were present, to escort the body to Albany, and after a brief service in the church, it was taken to the Rural cemetery.

As a preacher and instructor, President Darling's record will be honorably conspicuous in the history of Hamilton college. He was a successful teacher. He was always thoroughly prepared for the duties of the class-room. His example of industry, accurate attainment and careful search for the truth was a good inspiration to students. His complete self-control and admirable courtesy under trying circumstances added a winning grace to his personal power. Students who were in trouble always found a genuine friend in President Darling. He was a generous helper to the needy and distressed. He was kindly watchful, and knew how to speak words of wise monition at the critical moment. His published sermons and addresses reveal the habit of a conscientious thinker who was careful to test his conclusions by comparing them with the results of other thinkers in the same lines of research. In his home life Dr Darling satisfied the most exacting ideal of a husband and father. And his devotion to his family was responded to with a tenderness of love that will cherish his sainted memory as a priceless treasure.

### HENRY KNOWLES CLAPP

(Reprinted from local paper)

With profound sorrow we chronicle the death of Prof. H. K. Clapp, M. A., the accomplished scholar and teacher, which occurred most unexpectedly and suddenly. He had been a sufferer from

lung disease for several years, on which account he gave up his situation as principal of the Geneva classical and union school two years ago, and sought the more salubrious climate of Colorado, spending a full year in the Centennial state, and without doubt his life was prolonged by the change. On returning, instead of undertaking work in his former position, to which our board of education would have been only too glad to assign him, he was appointed to and accepted that of superintendent of public schools, and he discharged his duties therein most faithfully and satisfactorily to the close of the late school year. If he suffered much from his old trouble he endured it uncomplainingly. To all outward appearances, though far from seeming in rugged health, yet it was thought he had successfully combated the insidious disease. He was about town during Friday, and chatted pleasantly with a neighbor about dusk at even. Shortly thereafter on entering his house he was seized with a violent fit of coughing, during which a blood vessel was ruptured or hemorrhage of the lungs produced, and within two hours death ensued. The patient sufferer was at rest.

Professor Clapp was a native of Lyons. After pursuing a preparatory course he entered Hobart college and was graduated with credit to himself and his alma mater in 1868. Soon thereafter he was appointed a teacher in the classical department of our union school, being promoted a year or two later as principal. He endeared himself as well to his associate teachers as to pupils. He deported himself with the dignity of a gentleman, at all times and under all circumstances, and thus exerted a salutary influence on the young whose character he assisted in molding. Yet there was nothing austere or repellant in his nature. Though a teacher he continued to be a student, regarding the life-work of education never complete — that there was always something to learn. His accomplishments were appreciated outside the limits of his special field of labor. He was frequently called on during his more active career to address assemblies on educational topics, and his lectures abounded with valued instruction. Widespread regret will prevail that a life so useful should be cut off in its prime.

## CONVOCATION OFFICERS, 1891

## Officers of the University

*Ex officio* permanent officers of the Convocation

GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS, Chancellor

ANSON J. UPSON, Vice-Chancellor

MELVIL DEWEY, Secretary

ALBERT B. WATKINS, Assistant Secretary

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PRES. W: J. MILNE, New York State Normal college

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PRIN. D. C. FARR, Glens Falls academy

PRIN. C: F. WHELOCK, Canajoharie union school

PRIN. J. CARLTON NORRIS, Canandaigua academy

# REGISTER

## OF THE

### 29th University Convocation of the State of New York

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#### MEMBERS

#### University of the State of New York

**Regents.** George William Curtis, *chancellor*; Charles E. Fitch; Orris H. Warren; William H. Watson; St Clair McKelway; Daniel Beach; Pliny T. Sexton; T. Guilford Smith; Andrew S. Draper.

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**State medical examiners.** Maurice J. Lewi, H. M. Paine.

**State library.** S. B. Griswold, *law librarian*; George R. Howell, *archivist*; Walter S. Biscoe, *catalogue librarian*; Dunkin V. R. Johnston, *reference librarian*; Harry E. Griswold, *sub-librarian (law)*; W. B. Shaw, *sub-librarian (legislation)*; May Seymour, *sub-librarian (education)*; Nina E. Brown, *shelf-lister*; Ada Alice Jones, *cataloguer*; Frank C. Patten, *curator of catalogue*; Florence E. Woodworth, *cataloguer*; Mrs M. W. Loomis, *accession clerk*; Elizabeth Harvey, *cataloguer*; Murray Downs, *junior clerk (law)*; Mary C. O'Brien, *junior clerk*; Judson T. Jennings, Patrick F. Driscoll, Roscoe B. Wills, Chester Utter, John McDonald, *pages*.

**Library school.** Ada Bunnell, William S. Burns, Mary Ellis, Alice B. Kroeger, Mary E. Robbins, Katharine L. Sharp, Louise M. Sutermeister, Elizabeth K. Taylor, Hattie A. Walker, Martha T. Wheeler.

**State museum.** James Hall, *director and state geologist*; Charles H. Peck, *botanist*; J. A. Linter, *entomologist*; F. J. H. Merrill, *assistant director and assistant geologist*; John M. Clarke, *assistant paleontologist*.

### Colleges of arts and science for men

**Columbia college.** Pres. Seth Low; Nicholas M. Butler, Frank J. Goodnow, Henry F. Osborne, Munroe Smith, D. W. Ward, *professors*.

**Union college.** Pres. Harrison E. Webster; Frank S. Hoffman, Benjamin H. Ripton, James H. Stoller, Arthur S. Wright, *professors*.

**Hamilton college.** Thomas B. Hudson, *treasurer*; Edward North, Oren Root, *professors*.

**Hobart college.** Prof. M. H. Turk.

**University of the City of New York.** Chancellor Henry M. MacCracken; Prof. Francis H. Stoddard.

**Colgate university.** Dean N. L. Andrews; W. H. Maynard, Robert W. Moore, James M. Taylor, *professors*.

**University of Rochester.** Pres. David J. Hill.

**St Stephen's college.** Warden R. B. Fairbairn.

**Manhattan college.** Bro. John, *vice-principal*; Prof. Cornelius M. O'Leary.

**Canisius college.** Pres. J. U. Heinzle.

**Niagara university.** Prof. John Cronyn.

**St John's college, (Brooklyn).** Pres. J. A. Hartnett.

### Colleges of arts and science for women

**Elmira Female college.** Pres. Charles Van Norden.

**Vassar college.** Pres. James M. Taylor; Le Roy C. Cooley, A. M. Ely, Lucy M. Salmon, Mary W. Whitney, *professors*.

**Rutgers Female college.** Albert W. Ferris, *trustee*; Pres. G. W. Samson; Prof. Daniel S. Martin.

**Claverack college.** Pres. Arthur H. Flack.

**Barnard college.** Hamilton W. Mabie, Ella Weed, *trustees*.

**Colleges of arts and science for men and women**

**St Lawrence university.** Pres. A. B. Hervey.

**Alfred university.** D. A. Blakeslee, A. B. Kenyon, *professors*.

**Cornell university.** A. D. White, *trustee*; Dean Horatio S. White; George P. Bristol, J. G. Schurman, Benjamin I. Wheeler, Samuel G. Williams, *professors*.

**Syracuse university.** Prof. J. Scott Clark.

**Schools of medicine**

**Albany Medical college.** Willis G. Tucker, *registrar*; Prof. F. C. Curtis.

**Polytechnic schools**

**Rensselaer Polytechnic institute.** Prof. Richard H. Ward.

**Special schools**

**Dudley observatory.** Director Lewis Boss.

**N. Y. College for the Training of Teachers.** Prof. Walter L. Hervey, *acting president*.

**New York State normal college.** Albert N. Husted, Edward W. Wetmore, *professors*; Edith Bodley, Mary F. Hyde, Mrs M. A. B. Kelly, M. A. McClelland, Mrs M. S. Mooney.

**Fredonia normal school.** M. T. Dana.

**Geneseo normal school.** Prin. John M. Milne.

**New Paltz normal school.** Prin. Frank S. Capen.

**Oneonta normal school.** Prin. James M. Milne; Alice G. Bothwell, P. I. Bugbee, C. N. Cobb, Grace B. Latimer.

**Oswego normal school.** A. W. Norton.

**Plattsburg normal school.** Prin. Fox Holden.

**Academies**

**Academy of the Sacred Heart (Syracuse).** Prin. John F. Mullany.

**Adams Collegiate institute.** Prin. O. B. Rhodes.

**Albany high school.** Sup't Charles W. Cole; Prin. O. D. Robinson; W. D. Goewey, Austin Sanford, Mary I. Davis, Mary Morgan, Ellen Sullivan.

**A. M. Chesbrough seminary (North Chili).** Prin. B. H. Roberts; Mrs E. S. Roberts.

**Amsterdam academy.** Prin. C. C. Wetsell.



- Ausable Forks union school.** Prin. H. I. Tryon.  
**Batavia union school.** Prin. John Kennedy.  
**Bath-on-the-Hudson union school.** Prin. George H. Quay.  
**Binghamton high school.** Prin. E. R. Payson.  
**Buffalo seminary.** Prin. Mrs C. F. Hartt.  
**Canajoharie union school.** Prin. C: F. Wheelock; E. P. Abell, Mrs M. K. Miller.  
**Canandaigua academy.** Ex-Prin. N. T. Clarke; Prin. J. C. Norris.  
**Canisteo academy.** Prin. D. M. Estee.  
**Canton union school.** Prin. George M. Smith.  
**Catskill free academy.** Prin. H. Bay Niver.  
**Cazenovia seminary.** Prin. Isaac N. Clements; A. White  
**Christian Brothers' academy** (Albany). Bro. Constantius, *principal*; Bro. Godfrey.  
**Cobleskill high school.** Prin. H. H. Snell.  
**Colgate academy** (Hamilton). Prin. John Greene; Eugene P. Sisson, *assistant principal*; George S. Mills.  
**Cook academy** (Havana). Prin. A. C. Hill.  
**Cooperstown union school.** Prin. Strong Comstock.  
**Corning free academy.** Prin. A. Gaylord Slocum.  
**Crown Point union school.** Prin. Thomas R. Kneil.  
**Dansville union school.** Prin. F. J. Diamond.  
**De Veaux school** (Suspension Bridge). Prin. Reginald H. Coe.  
**Delaware Literary institute.** Prin. Charles H. Verrill.  
**Deposit union school.** Ex-Prin. H. H. Hawkins; Prin. S. Dwight Arms.  
**Fort Edward Collegiate institute.** Prin. Joseph E. King.  
**Franklin academy** (Malone). I. Winthrop Travell.  
**Fulton academy.** Sarah O. Knox.  
**Genesee Valley seminary** (Belfast). Prin. Elmer S. Redman.  
**Glens Falls academy.** Prin. Daniel C. Farr.  
**Gloversville public schools.** Sup't James A. Estee.  
**Hamburg union school.** Prin. Andrew Spencer.  
**Hancock union school.** Prin. Lincoln R. Long; Harry D. Nutt.  
**Haverling union school.** Prin. L. D. Miller.  
**Hogansburgh academy.** Sister M. Francis McGarr.  
**Hoosick Falls union school.** Sup't John E. Shull.  
**Houghton seminary** (Clinton). Prin. A. G. Benedict.

- Ithaca high school.** Julia S. Downer.
- Jordan free academy.** Prin. John W. Chandler.
- Kingston free academy.** Prin. Henry W. Callahan ; Nellie A. Wood, *preceptress*.
- Lansingburgh academy.** Prin. C. T. R. Smith ; Mrs Cornelia A. Smith, *preceptress*.
- La Salle institute (Troy).** Brother Edward, *principal* ; Brothers Angelus, Azarias, Innocent.
- Little Falls union school.** Sup't Edwin E. Ashley ; Prin. Marcellus Oakey.
- Lockport public schools.** Sup't Emmet Belknap.
- Lyons union school.** Prin. W. H. Kinney.
- Marion Collegiate institute.** Prin. Elmer G. Frail.
- Mechanicville academy.** Prin. Mrs S. E. K. Ames.
- Middleburg union school.** Prin. Roland S. Keyser.
- Morris union school.** Prin. W. D. Johnson.
- Munro Collegiate institute (Elbridge).** Prin. Truman K. Wright ; Laura M. Carpenter, *preceptress*.
- New Berlin union school.** Prin. Stanford J. Gibson.
- New Rochelle union school.** Sup't J. E. Young.
- New York Military academy (Cornwall).** Prin. J. C. Wyckoff.
- Newburg free academy.** Sup't R. V. K. Montfort ; Prin. James M. Crane.
- Nyack union school.** Sup't Ira H. Lawton.
- Owego free academy.** Prin. E. J. Peck.
- Oxford academy.** Prin. Frederick L. Gamage.
- Packer Collegiate institute (Brooklyn).** Prin. Truman J. Backus.
- Palatine Bridge union school.** Prin. N. G. Kingsley ; Caro M. Hill, *vice-principal*.
- Palmyra Classical union school.** Elizabeth G. Peabody, *preceptress* ; Bertha E. Peck.
- Packer union school.** Prin. Edward A. Parks.
- Phoenix union school.** Prin. De Forest A. Preston.
- Poughkeepsie high school.** Prin. James Winne.
- Pulaski academy.** Prin. William C. Gorman.
- Richfield Springs union school.** Prin. J. Anthony Bassett.
- Rochester free academy.** Prin. John G. Allen.
- St Bernard's academy (Cohoes).** Sisters M. Celestine, M. Clara ; John M. Connolly.

**St John's Catholic academy** (Syracuse). Prin. J. S. M. Lynch.

**St Peter's academy** (Troy). Sister M. Odelia, *principal*; Sister M. Rose, *assistant principal*.

**Sandy Hill union school**. Prin. Frances A. Tefft; Florence E. Dearstyne, Emily M. Stover.

**Saratoga Springs union school**. Prin. Welland Hendrick.

**Schenectady Union Classical institute**. Prin. Charles S. Halsey.

**Schenevus union school**. O. F. Lane, *pres. board of education*; Prin. F. S. Lowell.

**Schoharie union school**. Prin. Solomon Sias.

**Sidney union school**. N. G. Place, *pres. board of education*; Prin. Frank W. Goreth.

**Sodus academy**. Prin. Elisha Curtiss.

**Staten Island academy**. George Babcock.

**Syracuse high school**. S. E. Sprole.

**Syracuse public schools**. Sup't A. B. Blodgett.

**Tonawanda union school**. George E. Smith, *assistant principal*.

**Troy academy**. Prin. F. C. Barnes.

**Troy female seminary**. Prin. Emily Wilcox; Mary A. Greene.

**Troy high school**. Prin. Leigh R. Hunt.

**Ulster free academy**. Prin. W. E. Buntten.

**Utica free academy**. Sup't A. McMillan.

**Waterford union school**. Sup't H. H. Loomis.

**Weedsport union school**. Prin. Lazell R. Hopkins.

**Whitehall union school**. Prin. John H. Kelley.

**Wilson academy** (Angelica). Prin. John P. Slocum.

**Windsor union school**. Prin. George R. Winslow.

## VISITORS

Prof. H. B. Adams, Johns Hopkins university, Baltimore, Md.

Sister Agnes Gonzaga, directress Cathedral school, Albany.

Prin. George P. Armstrong, Bay Shore public school.

Prin. H. P. Amen, Riverview Military academy, Poughkeepsie.

Prin. A. Armagnac, Irving institute, Tarrytown.

George A. Bacon, Boston, Mass.

Pres. George H. Ball, Keuka college, Keuka.

C. W. Bardeen, Syracuse.

- William E. Barker, Sidney.  
Eugene Beach, Gloversville.  
Edward C. Bignore, London, Eng.  
Prin. J. L. Bothwell, school no. 14, Albany.  
Ellen W. Boyd, St Agnes school, Albany.  
Elizabeth Briggs, Boston, Mass.  
Caroline L. Bristol, Assistant physician, St Lawrence state hospital.  
E. N. Bristol, New York.  
E. E. Burdick, Jersey City, N. J.  
M. L. Burdick, school no. 12, Albany.  
Ida J. Butcher, Cecily Boker school, Utica.  
Prin. Mary E. Callaghan, Charlton academy.  
T. A. Caswell, Rochester.  
Mrs T. A. Caswell, Rochester.  
Michael T. Cavert, Rhinebeck.  
O. D. Clark, Boys high school, Brooklyn.  
Mrs M. A. Clayton, Auburn.  
Mary Coes, Assistant Secretary, Harvard Annex, Cambridge, Mass.  
Prin. J. W. Cole, grammar school no. 9, Troy.  
Adeline E. Coley, Albany.  
Prin. S. C. Collins, Chappaqua institute.  
O. P. Conant, New York.  
Prin. E. A. Corbin, school no. 20, Albany.  
L. B. Corey, Newark, N. J.  
Mrs M. F. Crow, Iowa college, Grinnell, Ia.  
C. M. Curry, Albany.  
Prin. Sarah E. Curry, school for girls, Albany.  
Florence M. Cushing, Boston, Mass.  
Vice-Prin. J. P. Cushing, Holyoke (Mass.) high school.  
Elizabeth G. Davidson, Albany.  
Janet E. Davidson, Albany.  
Ex-Prin. H. T. Dawson, Newark high school.  
Annie E. Downing, St. Matthew's academy, New York.  
A. S. Downing, Palmyra.  
Mrs A. S. Downing, Palmyra.  
Edward Ellery, Vermont academy, Saxton's River, Vt.  
George Fenton, Broadalbin.  
Mrs George Fenton, Broadalbin.  
Thomas E. Finnegan, Richmondville.

- May R. Fitzpatrick, Albany.  
Prin. C. E. Franklin, school no. 7, Albany.  
H. P. French, Albany.  
Emil Furgang, Brooklyn.  
F. Gilbourne, school no. 2, Albany.  
Carrie P. Godley, school no. 2, Albany.  
Mary E. Gorham, Smith college, Northampton, Mass.  
Louis Gray, East Brewster, Mass.  
Stephen R. Gray, Albany.  
Dean Edward H. Griffin, Johns Hopkins university, Baltimore, Md.  
Luther Gulick, Sup't Y. M. C. A. Training school, Springfield, Mass.  
Prin. George D. Hale, Hale's Classical and Scientific school, Rochester.  
Mrs George D. Hale, Rochester.  
Pres. G. Stanley Hall, Clark university, Worcester, Mass.  
Prin. George E. Hardy, grammar school no. 82, New York.  
William T. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.  
Prin. H. H. Hawkins, Deposit union school.  
George Henderson, sec'y American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, Philadelphia, Pa.  
Caroline J. Hitchcock, Meriden (Ct.) high school.  
Prof. Edward Hitchcock, Amherst college, Amherst, Mass.  
Mrs Fox Holden, Plattsburg.  
Franklin W. Hooper, director Brooklyn institute.  
Mrs L. R. Hopkins, Weedsport.  
Prin. E. O. Hovey, Newark (N. J.) high school.  
Elizabeth R. Hoy, Miss Van Amringe's school, New York.  
Myra L. Ingalsbe, Hartford.  
O. W. Jansen, Albany.  
Prin. H. R. Jolley, Greenbush public school.  
Mary A. Jordan, Smith college, Northampton, Mass.  
Samuel Kahn, Trenton, N. J.  
Charles F. Kent, Palmyra.  
Ellen Kingsley, Gloversville.  
Pres. Charles E. Knox, German Theological school of Newark, N. J.  
Prin. Helen M. Knox, St Peter's high school, Knoxboro.  
Prin. Frederick L. Lane, Babylon high school.

- J. M. Langworthy, trustee Kenka college, Kenka.  
 C. D. Larkins, Boys high school, Brooklyn.  
 Sister M. Laurentine, Prin. St Patrick's school, Troy.  
 Henry M. Leipziger, Assistant Sup't of schools, New York.  
 James B. Lockwood, White Plains.  
 James Lee Love, Harvard university, Cambridge, Mass.  
 Capt. Low, England.  
 Mrs Low, England.  
 Thomas McMillan, manager St Paul's school, New York.  
 Prof. Allan Marquand, College of New Jersey, Princeton, N. J.  
 J. E. Masee, Saratoga.  
 Sup't William H. Maxwell, Brooklyn.  
 Mrs Winifred E. Merrill, Albany.  
 Prin. James S. Morey, Parkville union free school.  
 Rev. M. Noot, Albany.  
 Prin. T. S. O'Brien, school no. 5, Albany.  
 L. L. O'Neill, Albany.  
 Prin. E. E. Packer, school no. 12, Albany.  
 A. L. Peck, public librarian, Gloversville.  
 A. D. Perkins, Syracuse.  
 Emma M. Perkins, Central high school, Cleveland, Ohio.  
 George A. Plimpton, New York.  
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 W. H. Purrington, New York.  
 Rev. L. W. Richardson, Palmyra.  
 Pres. William C. Roberts, Lake Forest university, Lake Forest,  
 Ill.  
 George Robinson, chaplain U. S. army.  
 J. H. Robinson, Delhi.  
 Annie E. Seip, Allentown, Pa.  
 Pres. Theodore L. Seip, Muhlenberg college, Allentown, Pa.  
 Harriot H. Sexton, Palmyra.  
 John G. Serviss, sup't Amsterdam union graded schools.  
 Jennie Shannon, Lansingburg union school.  
 Prin. J. E. Sherwood, school no. 8, Albany.  
 Sidney Sherwood, Baltimore, Md.  
 Louis Silbermann, South End Library ass'n, Albany.  
 J. C. Smock, state geologist, Trenton, N. J.  
 Prin. J. F. Steward, Little Falls grammar school.  
 S. Elizabeth Stewart, Gloversville.

Samuel Strasbourger, New York.  
Rev. M. Swick, De Freestville.  
John L. Taylor, Cincinnati, Ohio.  
Mrs John L. Taylor, Cincinnati, Ohio.  
Prin. J. R. Townsend, Brooklyn Preparatory school.  
Pres. Francis A. Walker, Massachusetts Institute of Technology,  
Boston, Mass.  
Sup't Charles W. Wasson, Monson, Mass.  
Theodore Whittlesey, Williams college, Williamstown, Mass.  
Rev. Cecil F. Wiggins, King's college, Windsor, N. S.  
J. G. Wight, Prin. Worcester (Mass.) high school.  
W. A. Wilson, New York.  
J. S. Winne, Albany.  
A. M. Wright, Waterville.  
Pres. Chas. J. Wright, New York Military academy, Peekskill.  
Prin. Arnold Züllig, Hoboken (N. J.) academy.



SUMMARY OF COLLEGE GRADUATES, 1891

The following summary shows 66 colleges and professional schools represented by 254 graduates, 151 being from New York institutions.

New York	New York—(Concluded)	Outside New York—(Concluded)	
Columbia college	6	Lafayette college	1
Union university	15	Pennsylvania college	2
Hamilton college	20	University of Pennsylvania	1
Hobart college	2	College of New Jersey	6
University of the City of New York	6	Rutgers college	4
Colgate university	8	Johns Hopkins university	1
St John's college (Fordham)	1	University of North Carolina	1
University of Rochester	11	Marietta college	1
St Stephen's college	1	Miami university	1
College of St Francis Xavier's	1	Oberlin college	1
Manhattan college	2	Illinois Wesleyan university	1
St Lawrence university	2	Northwestern university	1
Alfred university	6	University of Michigan	3
Cornell university	10	Beloit college	1
Syracuse university	9	St Louis college	1
N. Y. State normal college	22	King's college (N. S.)	1
Vassar college	9	Edinburgh university	1
Claverack college	1	London university	1
Albany Medical college	2	Göttingen university	1
Niagara University, Med. dep't	1	Heidelberg university	1
Rochester Theological seminary	1		
Rensselaer Polytechnic institute	2		
Brockport normal school	4		
Cortland	1		

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### Convocation ordinances

Established by the regents of the University

1 The University Convocation of the State of New York shall be held annually at the capitol in Albany on the first Wednesday, Thursday and Friday after July 4.

2 Its object shall be, by addresses, papers, discussions and resolutions to ascertain and formulate educational opinion ; to make such recommendations as experience may suggest ; and by the cooperation of all the institutions of the University to advance the cause of academic and higher education.

3 The membership of the Convocation shall embrace :

*a* The regents and all officers of any department of the University.

*b* All trustees, instructors and other officers, in colleges, normal schools, academies, high schools and other institutions of the University.

*c* The officers of the New York State Teachers' association.

*d* Such others as may be elected by the regents or by Convocation council.

4. The officers of the University shall be the permanent officers of the Convocation.

5 Each Convocation shall choose a council of five to act as its representative during the year, and to arrange for and conduct the business of the next annual meeting. The secretaries of the University shall be *ex officio* members and secretaries of this council.

6 The chancellor shall annually appoint a necrology committee to collect notices and report to the next Convocation on members or other prominent educators deceased during the year.

7 Each Convocation shall choose an examinations council of five to confer with the examinations department, to study the workings of the entire system of regents' examinations during the year, and to report to the next Convocation.

8 The proceedings of the Convocation, with the papers and discussions, shall be included in the annual report of the regents to the legislature.

### Convocation rules

Established by Convocation council

1 Unless previous notice to the contrary be given, all persons engaged to present papers must be in readiness at the time assigned by the council, in default of which all remaining papers will be entitled to precedence.

2 In case of inability to be present, immediate notice should be given to the secretary to whom the paper may be forwarded for use of the Convocation.

3 The author of each paper should furnish, in advance, a brief abstract for newspaper reports and, to prevent errors in the records, each person taking part in any discussion, should promptly give the secretary an abstract of his remarks.

4 All papers read before the Convocation belong to its proceedings and are to be handed to the secretary.

5 Any papers for the full reading of which there may not be time, may, by permission of the council, be read by title and published in the proceedings.

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## HOW TO OBTAIN A SHARE OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY MONEY

1 The trustees of any free public library under visitation of the regents and having subject to their order any money raised from taxation or other local sources for buying books may receive from the public library money an equal amount not to exceed \$200 for the first year of the library's establishment, or \$100 for a succeeding year ; the entire amount to be spent for books approved by the regents.

2 Any such library may also have the use of a traveling library not more than six months for general circulation. Several lists of about 100 volumes each will be furnished, from which one list may be selected and the books obtained in accordance with the regents' rules. These require a satisfactory guarantee and a fee of \$5 in each case to cover a part of the cost of suitable cases, printed catalogues, necessary blanks and records and transportation both ways. This traveling library may be exchanged for another on the same terms and these exchanges may continue as long as the regents' rules are observed.

3 Free public libraries under visitation of the regents include all libraries incorporated by the regents, all libraries which have been admitted to the University, and all libraries connected with colleges, academies or other institutions in the University, provided that they are open to the public, without charge, for either reference or circulation.

Any other free public library in the state wishing to have these privileges may apply for a regents' charter or admission to the University.

In order to secure such admission the trustees must formally apply for it to the regents. The regents' library inspector will then personally examine the library and its work and, if he reports that the library in its administration and character of books is worthy of state aid, loans of traveling libraries and other privileges granted to accredited institutions, the regents usually grant the request. This involves no expense, but every library admitted must make annually a brief sworn report of its conditions and operations and must be open to official inspection by the regents or their officers whenever they may think it desirable to satisfy themselves that the library is maintaining the required standard.

4 If in any community the people are not yet ready to establish such a library, 25 resident tax payers may obtain the use of a traveling library as provided in rule 2 for such libraries.

Since the appropriation for the fiscal year beginning October 1, 1892, is only \$25,000 for the entire state, it is obvious that applications must be considered in the order of their reception, and prompt action may be necessary to avoid disappointment. Those interested, if they wish to make an effort this year, should send as early as practicable for the official application blanks.

Inquiries for information or advice will be promptly answered if directed to **Public libraries department, State Library, Albany, N. Y.**

**MELVIL DEWEY, *Director***

## TRAVELING LIBRARIES

**Loans of books from the state.**—Under such rules as the regents may prescribe, they may lend from the state library, duplicate department, or from books specially given or bought for this purpose, selections of books for a limited time to any public library in this state under visitation of the regents, or to any community not yet having established such library, but which has conformed to the conditions required for such loans. (*Laws of 1892, ch. 378, § 47.*)

Under this authority traveling libraries of about 100 volumes each will be lent in accordance with the following rules.

### RULES

1 On satisfactory guarantee that all regents' rules will be complied with, a traveling library may be lent for a period not exceeding six months to any public library under visitation of the regents.

This includes all libraries incorporated by the regents, all libraries which have been admitted to the University and all libraries connected with colleges, academies or other institutions in the University, provided that they are open to the public, without charge, for either reference or circulation.

2 Under like conditions a traveling library may be lent to a community not yet having such a public library, on application of 25 resident taxpayers; provided that the applicants also agree that a petition shall be made for a popular vote to be taken within two years in their city, town, village or district on the question of establishing a free public library as provided in laws of 1892, ch. 378, § 36. The applicants shall specify one of their number, who must be a responsible owner of real estate, to act as trustee of said library and be personally responsible for any loss or injury beyond reasonable wear. This trustee shall designate a suitable person to be librarian.

3 A fee of \$5 shall be paid in advance to cover cost of suitable cases, printed catalogues, necessary blanks and records and transportation both ways.

4 Such precaution shall be taken in packing as to guard effectively against injury in transportation.

5 Notes, corrections of the press, or marks of any kind on books belonging to the library are unconditionally forbidden. Borrowing trustees will be held responsible for all losses or injuries beyond reasonable wear, however caused.

6 The traveling library shall not be kept longer than six months after its reception.

7 The librarian shall care for the books while under his control and circulate them in accordance with the regents' rules, and shall make such reports respecting their use as the regents may require.

8 For willful violation of any library rule the director of the state library may suspend the privilege of state loans till the case is considered by the regents' committee.

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University of the State of New York

Regents' Bulletin

No. 9 August 1892

30th University Convocation  
OF THE  
State of New York, July 5-7, 1892

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ANSON J. UPSON, D. D., LL. D., *Vice-Chancellor*  
ROSWELL P. FLOWER, Governor  
WILLIAM F. SHEEHAN, Lieutenant-Governor  
FRANK RICE, Secretary of State  
JAMES F. CROOKER, Sup't of Public Instruction

} *Ex officio*

In order of election by the legislature

GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS, LL.D., L. H. D., 1864	-	West New Brighton
FRANCIS KERNAN, LL. D., 1870	- - -	Utica
MARTIN I. TOWNSEND, LL. D., 1873	- - -	Troy
ANSON J. UPSON, D. D., LL. D., 1874	- - -	Glens Falls
WILLIAM L. BOSTWICK, 1876	- - -	Ithaca
CHAUNCEY M. DEPEW, LL. D., 1877	- - -	New York
CHARLES E. FITCH, 1877	- - -	Rochester
ORRIS H. WARREN, D. D., 1877	- - -	Syracuse
WHITELAW REID, LL. D., 1878	- - -	New York
WILLIAM H. WATSON, M. D., 1881	- - -	Utica
HENRY E. TURNER, 1881	- - -	Lowville
ST CLAIR MCKELWAY, LL. D., 1883	- - -	Brooklyn
HAMILTON HARRIS, LL. D., 1885	- - -	Albany
DANIEL BEACH, LL. D., 1885	- - -	Watkins
WILLARD A. COBB, 1886	- - -	Lockport
CARROLL E. SMITH, 1888	- - -	Syracuse
PLINY T. SIXTON, 1890	- - -	Palmyra
T. GUILFORD SMITH, 1890	- - -	Buffalo
Rt. Rev Wm. C. DOANE, D. D., LL. D., 1892	-	Albany

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MEIVIL DEWEY, M. A., *Secretary* - - - - Albany

# Regents Bulletin

**No. 9 August 1892**

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**30th University Convocation**

**OF THE**

**State of New York, July 5-7, 1892**

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## **PROGRAM**

**Tuesday evening, July 5**

**Address of welcome by Bishop William Croswell Doane.**

**Report of Convocation council.**

**Annual address: "Higher education in the South," by Pres. William Preston Johnston, Tulane University of Louisiana.**

**University reception, 9:30—11 p. m.**

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**Wednesday morning**

**Convocation was called to order at 9:45 a. m. by Regent T. Guilford Smith.**

**Standards of admission to college. Should Greek be studied before entering college? Paper by Prof. B. L. Wheeler, Cornell University.**

**General discussion:**

**Prin. D. C. FARR, Glens Falls Academy.**

**Prin. W. E. BUNTEN, Ulster Academy, Rondout.**



Prin. C. T. R. SMITH, Lansingburg Academy.  
 Prin. ROLAND S. KEYSER, Middleburg Academy.  
 Prin. JOSEPH E. KING, Fort Edward Collegiate Institute.  
 Prin. E. J. PECK, Owego Free Academy.  
 Pres. ETHELBERT D. WARFIELD, La Fayette College, Easton, Pa.  
 Pres. J. M. TAYLOR, Vassar College.  
 Pres. JAMES MAC ALISTER, Drexel Institute, Philadelphia.  
 Pres. H. E. WEBSTER, Union University.  
 Prin. O. B. RHODES, Adams Collegiate Institute.

Are the abnormally high requirements for admission maintained by a few colleges an injury to higher education?

Prof. EPHRAIM EMERTON, Harvard University.  
 Prof. HORATIO S. WHITE, Dean of Cornell University.  
 Prof. ADOLPHE COHN, Columbia College.  
 WILLIS BOUGHTON, M. A., University of Pennsylvania.  
 Prin. GEORGE H. OTTOWAY, Canastota.  
 A. W. NORTON, Oswego Normal School.

Examinations and degrees. Should the M. A. degree be abandoned or given a distinct pedagogic significance?

The specialist vs the M. A. degree.

MARCELLUS OARLEY, Little Falls Academy.

General discussion:

Pres. J. M. TAYLOR, Vassar College.  
 Prof. H. S. WHITE, Cornell University.  
 Prof. EPHRAIM EMERTON, Harvard University.

The proper academic recognition of results of higher examinations conducted by the University: report by the committee representing colleges, to whom this question was referred by the regents with the request to report for further consideration by Convocation.

General discussion:

Prin. SOLOMON SIAS, Schoharie.  
 Prin. GEORGE H. OTTOWAY, Canastota.  
 Bishop WILLIAM CROSWELL DOANE, Albany.  
 Rev. CLARENCE A. WALWORTH Albany.  
 Regent T. GUILFORD SMITH, Buffalo.  
 Pres. J. G. SCHURMAN, Cornell University.

Copies of the definite plan for higher examinations adopted by the regents February 11, 1892, were sent applicants and were at the registrar's desk for distribution.

Topics from question box till recess at 12:30.

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### Wednesday afternoon, July 6

Convocation was called to order at 3.30 p. m. by Regent T. Guilford Smith.

The seminar method of advanced instruction; its organization and details. To what extent should it be used in university, college and academy?

The seminarium: its advantages and limitations. Paper by Prof. E. R. A. Seligman, of Columbia College.

This paper, summing up the history and theory of the method, was printed and sent before Convocation to all applicants. Copies were also at the registrar's desk.

Limitations and dangers.

Prof. EPHRAIM EMERTON, Harvard University.

Advantages and limitations.

Pres. J. G. SCHURMAN, Cornell University.

Seminar method in undergraduate work.

Chanc. JAMES H. CANFIELD, University of Nebraska.

General discussion:

Pres. E. BENJAMIN ANDREWS, Brown University.

Prof. GEORGE STUART FULLEBTON, University of Pennsylvania.

Prof. FRANCIS H. STODDARD, University of the City of New York.

WILLIS BOUGHTON, M. A., University of Pennsylvania.

Topics from question box till recess at 5 p. m.

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### Wednesday, 7 p. m. Kenmore hotel

Annual Convocation dinner with after-dinner speeches strictly limited to five minutes.

**Thursday morning, July 7**

Convocation was called to order at 9:40 a. m. by Bishop Doane.

**Study of economic and social science in university, college and academy:** paper by Pres. John F. Crowell, Trinity College, N. C.

**Discussion:**

Pres. JAMES MAC ALISTER, Drexel Institute, Philadelphia.

Prof. HERBERT E. MILLS, Vassar College.

Prof. HERBERT B. ADAMS, Johns Hopkins University.

Prin. W. R. PRENTICE, Hornell Free Academy.

Prin. F. J. CHENEY, Cortland Normal School.

Prin. W. E. BUNTEN, Ulster Free Academy.

Sup't EDWIN E. ASHLEY, Troy.

PRIN. D. C. FARR, Glens Falls Academy.

Report of committee on necrology, by C. W. Bardeen, editor *School bulletin*, Syracuse, chairman. Only name, position, age and date of death are read, as the notices are printed in full in the proceedings.

**Memorial meeting of friends of the late Assistant Secretary of the University, Dr Albert Barnes Watkins.**

Memorial prayer by Bishop William Crosswell Doane.

Biographical sketch for the proceedings by Prin. Orlo B. Rhodes Adams Collegiate Institute.

**Remarks by former associates.**

Ex-Prin. N. T. CLARKE, Canandaigua.

Prin. D. C. FARR, Glens Falls Academy.

Prin. HENRY WHITE CALLAHAN, Kingston Academy.

Prof. H. S. WHITE, Cornell University.

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**Thursday afternoon, July 7**

Convocation was called to order at 3.10 p. m. by Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler, chairman of Convocation council.

**University extension. Practical workings of university extension.**

This subject will be taken up where it was left by the last Convocation. Discussion on the actual working of the extension system in America, omitting history, theory, and foreign experience.

**Class work in extension teaching.**

JOSIAH H. PENNIMAN, University of Pennsylvania.

Teaching mathematics to extension classes.

Prof. EDWIN S. CRAWLEY, University of Pennsylvania.

Report on New York centers.

RALPH W. THOMAS, Regents' office.

General discussion:

Prof. GEORGE STUART FULLERTON, University of Pennsylvania.

Prof. W: H. MACR, Syracuse University.

Prin. MARCELLUS OAKLEY, Little Falls Academy.

Award of Library School prize of \$100 for best essay on "Relation of university extension to local libraries."

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## PAPERS AND PROCEEDINGS

Tuesday evening, July 5

The Convocation was called to order at 8 p. m. by Bishop William Croswell Doane. Prayer was offered by Warden R. B. Fairbairn of St Stephen's College, Annandale, N. Y.

### ADDRESS OF WELCOME

Bishop Doane — It may be necessary for me to say at the outset, not to anybody who lives in Albany but to some of our friends who are gathered here from outside — I think perhaps it may not be necessary for me to say it, for I am sure you will find it out for yourselves before very long — that I am not Mr George William Curtis, that I am not Chancellor of the University of the State of New York. If anybody is more disappointed than I am in the necessity of my standing here in his place I should be very glad to shake hands with him. It is a very great regret to the regents of the University of the State of New York and to this University Convocation that that distinguished gentleman and scholar of whom the University is as proud as the state of New York is — for his life-long reputation in letters, in politics and public life is clean and clear — it is a matter of infinite regret, I say, to this Convocation that the Chancellor is unable to be here. By that sort of coincidence which is described by the saying that extremes meet, in the place of the head of the University of the State of New York there stands here the tail, because I am the latest and youngest of the board of regents. It is my duty, however, leaving aside personal questions and personal considerations to

address myself to the task in hand. It is indeed a great privilege to meet in this Convocation, held in the oldest incorporated city in the United States, the friends and promoters of the great work of education. The fact that I am the newest and greenest member of the board of regents gives me I think the privilege and right to say certain things which older members of the board who have had something to do with shaping its course and controlling its career would be too modest to say.

The University of the State of New York is an institution which, it seems to me, is very largely misunderstood. I remember two or three years ago when the Chancellor, filling the place which I am filling to-night, made a statement in his own most admirable way of the peculiar character of the institution which is called the University of the State of New York, differentiating it absolutely and entirely from any remotest relation or likeness either to the English or continental university. It is purely and absolutely an American institution in that it stands for things which are very valuable and very important. It stands for everything that goes to care for the difficult and detailed administration of educational interests of the highest order in the state of New York. It stands for the elevation of this whole matter of education in the academies and high schools of New York; and I think I may say farther than that, in its colleges and technical universities. As a new-comer in the board of regents and a new member of this University of New York, may I say to you who are gathered here from this state and from other sister states, that in the first place the office of the regents — and I can say it with the utmost possible independence and impersonality — is one of the most elaborate, one of the most laborious, one of the most difficult, one of the most thoroughly administered departments of the state of New York. Nobody, unless he has taken pains to go into the office in its busy hours, hours that begin, I was going to say, at sunrise and stop at sunset, has any idea of the amount of work which is done there. The eight-hour law has not found its way into the regents' office yet, wherever else it may be in vogue. There is no office in this great capitol that is more carefully, thoroughly and nobly administered than the office, specially of the Secretary, of the board of regents, to whom everybody owes very much for the admirable administrative work of the University. I should like farther than that to call the attention of those who are here to two or three things that lie outside the question of administrative detail. The work of the University means not merely the distribution of several funds of money appropriated by the state, it means not merely overseeing the

high schools and academies, looking after the details of apparatus and libraries; it means not merely the care of the great library of the state and the great scientific collections that belong to the state; it means not merely the preparation of the papers for examinations of very high degree; but it means two things in which you, I and all educated and intelligent men, scholars and teachers are very greatly interested. If I may be permitted, I should like for a few moments to call your attention to these two points.

There is a common and almost universally accepted theory on the part of a certain number of people in this state, that the work of the regents and the work of the University is simply concerned with the question of the payment of money to the academies and high schools, and looking after the maintenance, enlargement and control of the state collections of books and minerals in different places. I really think that to a very large degree the impression prevails, which was honestly conveyed to me by a very distinguished official personage in this state of New York and in this capital city of New York last winter, that the regents were a very highly ornamental body who discharged one of their chiefest and most important functions when they had the privilege of dining in the house of the Chancellor—a man to whom I undertake to say this board of regents and this University of the State of New York owe more than to almost any other man that has occupied the Chancellor's chair—the Hon. John V. L. Pruyn, who was the last Chancellor but one before Mr Curtis.

The University of the State of New York is concerned with very much more serious and very much more important matters. It is bent in the very strongest way on the promotion of higher standards of education for the attainment of degrees; it is bent on securing the widest possible extension of a very thorough system of examinations for honors of every sort and kind; it is bent, above all things just now, on two matters which excite more or less interest, if not antagonism.

The two points that we are interested in are these: in the first place we are aiming very carefully and very essentially to provide for a class of young men and young women who can be found in every part of our commonwealth, who can not get the great advantage of education by collegiate residence. This arouses to a certain extent, naturally, the interest of university men. I am certain that there is no man in the board of regents from the Chancellor down, who is not abundantly satisfied from his own experience that there is no greater loss to a young man than the loss of breathing in the rich and redolent atmosphere of college or university life. It is not that we feel that anything can take the place of that mysterious, that almost inde-

scribable something which every graduate of any college in the world knows. It is not that anything can take the place of residence in a college or university, but we know that the experiment of granting degrees without residence has been tried elsewhere and with great success, for instance in the London University. There are many and many bright boys and girls to whom residence in a college or university is impossible. We have discussed the advisability of establishing examinations for degrees to meet such cases. I believe in doing so, we are doing that which tends not only to promote, but to increase sound learning and higher education. We have had more or less anxiety within the last year as to how far this matter would bring us in conflict with academy and university men. I am thankful to say that after a conference that was held last year in which this whole matter was carefully gone over by the leading college and university men of the state of New York, we have come to an agreement which I think absolutely shuts out any thought of conflict between the great established colleges and universities in the state of New York and this University of the State of New York which has a certain relation to them all. The old

"Obsequamur regibus  
Modo jungant reges  
Libertatem legibus  
Libertati leges"

has reference to the sort of feeling which has been established between the college men of the state and the University of the State of New York. It may be translated

The regents we will reverence  
And let them rule with might;  
So every university  
Retains each vested right.

I think we have come to this happy platform of absolute agreement and accord.

There is just one other thing while I am speaking of this matter of the work of the University which has been by some people believed to be antagonistic to the great democratic theory—I do not mean democratic in the partisan sense of the word—but I mean the theory that every man is equal to every other man; that higher educational opportunity when it takes the form of university extension is an undemocratic idea. I think we all feel that the title university extension is very unfortunate. It conveys an impression which is not true. But the fact is that the scheme, the attempt, the purpose, the principle, so far from being undemocratic seems to me to be absolutely



democratic; and why? I suppose that a good many people here must have read the paper of the late superintendent of public instruction of the state of New York, Mr Andrew S. Draper, in which he maintained with admirable success the position (I am a Massachusetts man and therefore it costs me something to say it) that New York instead of Massachusetts is the mother of all common school and public instruction. The only trouble with education in the state of New York is that it never had a Massachusetts man to write it up. The education that the old Dutchmen started in New York was an education for boys and girls, for manhood and womanhood. It is true therefore that the educational system of New York which finds and has found for many years its center in this University of the State of New York, is the most democratic in the country, because it takes in boys and girls, men and women, and educates them not for the ministry, for technical and professional pursuits, but for the common ministry of manhood and womanhood in actual life work. Surely while it is perfectly true that it would be eminently wrong to take away a dollar needed for the advancement and improvement of what is commonly called the common school system, I believe it is the business of the University of the State of New York and that it will promote the interests of the whole people to give to every human being the possibility of obtaining the highest reach of which he is capable, the opportunity and the opening for such teaching as those centers of so-called university extension. This is not undemocratic but highly democratic because it is done in the best interests of the people of the state.

I must beg pardon for having kept you so long from what is to be the chief pleasure and entertainment of the evening.

It will be my pleasure in a moment to introduce to you the distinguished scholar and gentleman who has come to us from so great a distance to make the annual address of this evening on the subject of Higher education in the South. Before I do that I have to say that the report of the committee on necrology, which is down on the program of June 27 for this evening, is postponed till Thursday and that the only thing that will detain the University Convocation from listening to the address is the report of Convocation council.

#### REPORT OF CONVOCATION COUNCIL

Prof. N: M. Butler — The Convocation council have no report other than the submission of the program for this meeting, which in its tentative form has been in the hands of the public for some days. The final program will be ready for distribution at the close of the

meeting. The council desire to call particular attention to the reception which has been provided in order to afford an opportunity for those who are gathered here to become acquainted. The reception committee will be designated by purple badges and will be very glad indeed to bring about any desired introductions.

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Bishop Doane — I take pleasure in introducing Pres. William Preston Johnston who bears the name of a man whom you and I came to know in the time of war, as one who was devoted to the principles in which he had been trained. His son laying aside the weapon of death, has assumed a kinder power of control in *litteris humanioribus*.

### HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH

ANNUAL ADDRESS BY PRES. WILLIAM PRESTON JOHNSTON, TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA

Your distinguished body has done me the honor to invite me to address you to-day on Higher education in the South. I appreciate fully the compliment paid me personally in this invitation and still more the fraternal feeling evinced in it, emphasizing as it does the importance of my section of the Union in the general upward movement of education in our common country. It is, however, with a very sincere distrust of my own ability that I appear here now. The question is so large, so complicated, so fundamental, that any man of ordinary self-esteem would feel a diffidence in grappling with it. However, you have called on me for my views, and I shall offer them frankly and subject to such correction as your wider experience and wisdom may apply to them.

The higher education in the South — let us resolve this question into its elements. What is higher education? To whom does it properly apply? What is its present attitude in our southern states; its genesis, methods, purposes? Whither does it tend? What will be the result?

Education is, or ought to be, the equable evolution of organic man. Such definition may at least stand for a formula, or a symbol of it under the liberal interpretation of this intelligent audience. And the higher education to the consideration of which we are invited, is the final unfolding of the human soul under culture. These are our ideals; this is what should be. But in fact how many human souls are ever permitted to get this growth or receive this training; how many rose trees in the garden of God are allowed to enjoy even the free

light and the refreshing dews of heaven? The poor, stunted soul, for the most part, has to struggle toward the light in a stifling atmosphere, in the cramping environment of unwholesome homes and dead-alive school systems, under the shadow of the cloister or of some effete, cast-iron creed, reaching out whither it may, but warped and dwarfed, feeble and fruitless. To clear away these and other evil influences and to allow and in a rational way to aid free and healthy growth is the province of the philosophic educator, when the higher education is in view.

President Dwight, in a recent paper, (*Forum*, May, 1892) has outlined with his vigorous hand the aim and purpose of the higher education. He tells us it should be "the culture and development of the thinking mind. Its aim should be serious thought. These expressions indeed—the thinking mind and serious thought—set forth what lies at the basis of all education and what is essential to the true idea of education in every degree." We may very well accept this as a general principle; but when we come to consider it in its application to "all sorts and conditions of men," it must be taken with large allowances and broad qualifications. There is no capacity or power of serious thought in the infantile mind; and there are adult individuals and even whole races of men who think and can think on the infantile plan only.

"The building up and building out of the mind," "the culture and development of the thinking mind for the serious thought that should be its aim," to which President Dwight points us, belong only to the adult races, and in them only to a limited number of persons. The formal training and discipline preparatory to this process are best carried on in college life. But sturdy wrestlers with the actual problems of existence likewise undergo these mental gymnastics, and both students and self-made men may be led to that enlarged view of things that characterizes the intellectual life. In his training the collegian has the advantage of experienced guides, Alpine climbers, over the difficult and uphill road to wisdom. He avoids many perils, escapes many a serious fall, and arrives sooner and more certainly at the appointed goal. The man trained by the world has the advantage of not having had these kind guides. Defeat has been his most useful master. From defeat he has learned the best lessons we ever get here below. When either of these pupils has gained the thinking mind, the habit of serious thought, reason may admit him to the freedom of her city. He has an inalienable franchise that power can not rob him of. So thought Epictetus the slave. Do I dwell too long on this theme of the power of reason, the sovereignty of thought, as the spirit

and first principle of the higher education? If so, pardon me; but, in this day, when fragmentary thought, like bits of colored glass in a kaleidoscope, is turned and turned and displayed to us as a symmetrical totality, when in fact it is only the mirrored repetition of disorderly gewgaws, and when boasted philosophies prove on examination to be only verbal gimcracks, mechanical toys, a trained thinker thinking serious thought is a grand being in a shallow world, and the process that can produce him may well challenge our attention and admiration.

The points to which I wish to call your attention for the present then are these. To get this thinking mind we must have: first, the potentiality, the mind that can be made to think, which comes by heredity, or the grace of God, if you please; next, a propitious childhood, whether in sunshine or storm, yet a childhood lived in an intellectual climate that shall brace the soul; and lastly, a later environment that shall call into action all the faculties of the soul, till, like the winner in the Pentathlon of the Greeks, it can prove itself a thoroughly trained athlete in the arena of reason. If the social order of the world is to be redeemed at all, it must be by the combined effort of those who are enfranchised citizens in this republic of reason. Hence the necessity for them; the urgency of the demand. Our claim is not that the philosopher, but that philosophy shall be king; and this rests in the wisdom of the few.

If, by any principle of selection, we could designate in advance who are by divine right the elect, capacitated to master the higher education and live the intellectual life and to give true direction to national affairs and world-progress, we should certainly attain more satisfactory results than by trying to force it on all mankind. But there are no certain tests by which we can exactly foresee the individuals who will or can attain to the higher planes of thought; so that we must be content with large averages to ascertain the *classes* that will probably be benefited by the upper side of education, and expend on them our energy, if we are to hope for great results.

Now, whether we embrace the whole country in the scope of these remarks, or merely the South, which is under special discussion, the question will arise: What are the upper, or superior, classes going to do with those inferior strata of society that range from the inefficient down to the dangerous? Or the question may be put the other way: What are the savage classes going to do with you? In this division I do not propose an artificial one based on wealth; but by the upper class I mean the thrifty, thinking, God-loving, man-loving, controlling people who, from whatever European nationality sprung, constitute essentially one homogeneous class in every part of

the country, north and south. What are these people going to do with those barbarous and savage groups of immigrants, alien in origin, speech and sentiments, the sewage of the world, who are now deluging the land? Your problem is apparently more difficult than that of the South. But in reality it is simpler, for your means of solving it are greater. You are richer, your political machinery has been adapted to the management of free society a century before the South began to use it, and your entire population is in accord as to the methods of redemption. So that your prompt reply is: "We will educate the masses." It is a good answer, as far as it goes, but it will not put society on a secure and stable basis, until some working plan of government is adopted by which, while labor shall receive its just reward, the government shall represent the wisdom, virtue and power of society, not its caprice, ignorance and disintegrating forces. I trust your solution will be successful; for, in this matter, circumstances will inevitably compel the South to follow your leadership.

We are agreed that these masses are to be educated, but the success of that education will depend on whether it is in the right direction; and, where so much is to be done, whether it is projected with judicious husbandry of means and energy, so that there shall be no waste. To me it seems plain that the masses of the population can not rise above the primary stage of education. The laws of nature and the present condition of society forbid. State governments are, however, providing the means for this primary education by public taxation, and private munificence is embarrassing your higher institutions with opulence, instead of poverty. Wisdom in administration is now your chief need; and with such evidence as I see before me of enlightened interest in the public welfare, you have everything to hope for.

With us in the South, the case is different. Let us consider the situation, and specially the people with whom we have to deal, the methods to be adopted, and our means of carrying them out. And in this discussion I exclude the negroes from consideration. The first point to be noted is that the southern people, like yourselves, are with few and inconsiderable exceptions of pure British origin. I do not forget the infusion of Huguenots, the German and other colonies, and specially the important French element in Louisiana, which, like your own Dutch ancestry, are strong grafts on the original stock. But all these are assimilated in the civilization of the South. This population is as nearly homogeneous as any other civilized people on the globe. During the period of African slavery there were, it is true, considerable class distinctions, but there was

only a single mark of caste—the color line. That line still exists, but the class distinctions have become much fainter. Those based on family antecedents may count for something more, and those on wealth for something less than in the North, but practically there is little difference in these respects between the sections. This people have equal rights and democratic institutions that give the same chance in life to every man. The free public school system, free high schools, and admission virtually free to colleges and universities, form a ladder that all who have the native strength may climb. A great host it is that surrounds the foot of that Jacob's ladder. They see or seem to see the open windows that admit the successful climbers to higher, and yet higher mansions in their Father's house; and yet few are the feet that every touch any except the lowest rungs. Why is this? It is because, while relatively to other lands, the number of aspiring souls is very great, yet the genuine thinkers of *any* race are really few. So that out of all that vast multitude there are not many to whom nature grants power to lift their eyes to the loftier altitudes, or who can hear the angelic voice that bids them mount to the heights of pure reason.

Still this people of the South are eminently a superior race, high in the peerage of nations. They are of the elect, of the same blood and lineage as yourselves, descendants of sires who were next of kin, indeed to your own sturdy Dutch ancestors and Pilgrim Fathers. Let doubters and scoffers turn to the record. Your forefathers did not doubt or scoff when they entrusted military and civil command to George Washington, and followed the leadership of Virginia in the formation of a constitution for the perilous experiment of a federal republic. I do not boast; or, if this be boasting, it is as much your boast as mine, for it was the joint action of brethren. And you yourselves or the best of you do not doubt or scoff at the martial intrepidity, the stubborn tenacity, the steadfast devotion to an idea that has marked the people of the South in our own day and generation. Whether as friend or foe, you have known where to find them; and it is, and always has been, whether in field or forum, standing on a rock-rooted idea, the right of self-government. Call it by what name you please, municipal institutions, decentralization, state rights, or, when it comes waving a shillelah and "wearing of the green," home rule, it is still ever a vital principle to live for and die for; and the southern people demonstrated their faith in it by their works. Martyrdom does not prove the truth of a cause, but it goes far to prove the honesty and aspiration of the martyr, and these virtues are the tests of the higher life



in men and nations. And by the way success proves nothing more than "the heaviest battalions." I say these things quite freely in this assembly, for I am confident that in the long run your devotion to the grand idea of free thought will enable you to tolerate error if I am in error, or in your magnanimity to accept the truth in howsoever homely guise it may come.

But I do not claim that this people, generous, faithful and wedded to certain high ideals, and comparatively homegenous in so far as the rural isolation of more than two centuries could produce that result, have in fact freed themselves from the infrangible bonds of diverse origin and persistent heredity. They are the descendants of British ancestors it is true, with much subsequent cross breeding, but there is not a type of the most ancient British breed, the worst as well as the best, that can not be found in our population. There are groups and classes among the white people of the South, as here, that have not attained thinking mind and who are excluded from the higher education just as effectually as if an angel with flaming sword stood in the gateway. If a conscription were to hale these undeveloped masses from the byways and hedges into the outer courts of the splendid temple of Reason, they might perish there on the altar of sacrifice, like dumb, driven cattle, but never could they, with open vision and illuminated minds, serve as priests at those altars, or even as worshippers. But how are these to be discriminated from the elect? The difficulty is that in these higher races there is no fixed rule by which any doctor can diagnose the potential strength of any son of the people. It is not written on his brow or plainly stamped on his features. The scientists have as yet hardly learned the first glimmerings of the principles of heredity by which a black sheep or a genius may cry back a thousand years, under the laws of atavism or reversion of type, to a remote abnormal ancestor. Few indeed are the families which have evinced such persistency of talents that its members may claim a birthright in the guild of reason. There are such among you, among us; but they are not numerous, and the exceptions are often very striking. But the same causes that in an adult and superior race may produce the black sheep among the highest born, may likewise call up a genius or a gifted soul from the lowliest cottage; and the voice that calls is from heaven. Happy the land where all who are summoned by this divine mandate that sounds in every secret cell of being find the way open and the road plain to answer the call and follow their vocation. To ensure this result we are obliged to provide for all and trust to increase our class of



thinkers through the processes of natural selection. This you are able to do in the favored section where we now stand. Here the opulence of imperial commonwealths is poured out with liberal hand in aid of every kind of institution of learning; and we see capitalists, who have acquired riches through energy and sagacity, exercising an enlightened charity and dedicating a full share of their abundant wealth to the elevation of their brethren through the uplifting power of education. It is not and can not be so in the South. It has few millionaires; there is little superfluity of means, and public spirit and a true philosophy of human responsibility have not as yet educated a class up to point of knowing how to give freely, wisely and munificently. Popular opinion will gradually take care of the public schools; but it is the highest institutions that most need cherishing for they are the centers of light and inspiration to the entire educational system. True, a few noble examples of beneficence have wrought a marvelous change for the better in public sentiment in this regard; but we need more and signal instances to make the way plain. But the heart grows sick and the head faint, waiting for the day of the Lord.

It is not possible on an occasion like this to give a history of higher education in the South. That work is now being done in detail excellently well by Professor Adams of Johns Hopkins University and his collaborators under the auspices of the Bureau of Education. Such a history seems to me to divide itself naturally into three periods. The first was that of ecclesiastical control, which survives and extends itself into our own times and the existing state of things. This condition had its advantages and its drawbacks. Its schemes of education were logical, consistent and developed along given lines. They had the backing, too, of a clergy or church ministry who have ever proved the most effective missionaries of educational work. The reason of this is plain; they *believe*, and, as a rule, they are good men with an idea, and are well organized to carry it out. The chief drawbacks, of course, were sectarian narrowness, rigidity and dogmatism. The whole system was collegiate, and entirely lacking in the freedom essential in university work.

Thomas Jefferson is the father of the university idea in this country; a man very cogent and prolific of ideas of his own, but quite as ready to adopt the intellectual waifs of the world without regard to their parentage. The majestic structure of his brain was a veritable orphan asylum, sheltering all that demanded its hospitality. In this single sanctuary grew into strength and went forth to do their mission the two great ideas of radical democracy and of state rights which

subsequently came into collision under their respective champions, Abraham Lincoln and Jefferson Davis, both the legitimate intellectual offspring of Thomas Jefferson. Among his other ideas, and one of the best of them was his scheme of public education with a university as its crown and summit. If his conception had been carried out in its completeness, Jefferson's plan would have realized the grandest, freest and fullest system of education in the world. In its fragmentary form, as adopted and carried on, its benefits have been very questionable. It has, however, produced the University of Virginia whose influence for half a century struggled with the old idea of ecclesiastical domination and has so far prevailed, at least, as to divide with it the sway of educational thought. This university has done great good in breaking intellectual shackles and in setting up a high ideal of honor, veracity and manly self-control, in place of pedagogic constraint and pharasaic conformity. It has also always had those prime requisites of a true university, a learned and able faculty and a corps of students drawn from the best classes of society. Necessarily the direct result of this was occasional signal attainments in scholarship and a frequent display of ability and success in life by its alumni. The University of Virginia had, however, in my opinion, serious defects. It established no standard of admission to its courses of study, but allowed the ignorant and immature to throng its halls, where, without the requisite training or information, their time was virtually wasted or worse. Under the elective system without restraint, very few except the *élite*, received either training or learning. The prestige and traditions of the university long resisted friendly criticism and prevented reform; but a broader and more philosophic spirit has of late directed it into the pathway of progress. In speaking thus freely of so eminent an institution, no depreciation is intended of the great work it has accomplished, of the eminent body of men who have constituted its faculty, or of its alumni, who have distinguished themselves in every sphere of usefulness, and in public life specially. Indeed, I pay it the highest compliment when I hold it up as the moving force of a great educational tendency during an era of unprecedented importance in our history. It represented the spirit of the rural aristocracy that governed the South until the sectional war. That spirit has taken new forms, and the ideas and institutions that clustered around it must accept an adjustment adapted to the new conditions. Many great and vigorous minds are turning their powers to the investigation of the philosophy of education, which is properly the business of the grandest, strongest and most unselfish souls; for without going

farther we may remember that Socrates and Plato and Aristotle were all school-masters in one city. And even here now you are sitting in an Areopagus as debaters, listeners, thinkers, actors, judges, trying to decide how best the world is to be helped through the training of its youth. We may, any of us, learn something; and this fine old institution finds that the world moves.

But you will say, how is it now? Watchman, what of the night? You have heard no exultant cry of optimism from me. It may be because I am growing old in the service, and the armor hangs heavy upon me as I stand sentinel in a cloudy dawn. But neither do you hear the wail of pessimism; for I believe God's judgments stand, and that His laws are immutable, and that there is in Him "no variableness neither shadow of turning;" because, too, I believe—*Credo*—in the people whom I have known since first I lisped. I have found in them the substance of warriors and sages and saints; and when I die I wish to go where they go, believing that I will meet in that company the best of every land and race—and I hope to see some of you there, too.

If I were trying to tell you how much has been done for education in what some are pleased to call the New South, it would be like the catalogue of ships in the Iliad. But it would not record or display the thought, the purpose, the energy, the patient self-denial, the deferred hopes, the struggling aspirations of thousands of our best and truest people. My friend, Dr A. D. Mayo, a close and diligent observer and recorder, has done much to enlighten the public mind as to the educational movement in the South. The Bureau of Education, too, has published valuable monographs on this subject. These friendly critics have generously shown how much has been done. Every state has its higher institution of learning—a university or agricultural college, and often both. Each one of these is striving, with insufficient means and generally with imperfect ideals, to build up the splendid edifice of public education. But, in the hands of political managers, often changed and not infrequently self-seeking and ill informed, there is little continuity of policy, and a lack of that largeness of mind and persistency of purpose that are prerequisites to success. The curse of Reuben is on them. They reflect every popular whim in their organization and educational systems, and the result is a failure in stability and true progress. But signs of improvement are to be noted everywhere.

*Per capita*, we have perhaps as many universities and colleges as any country in the world. In New Orleans for instance we have one university for white students and four for colored students. I

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not excelled in any part of this country or of Europe. While it is in many respects a cosmopolitan city, its relations to the rest of the southwest are not simply commercial, but social and intimate; and though it is a gay city its esthetic and artistic sense has led it to esteem and honor letters and the educational profession. There is no city within my knowledge where a university faculty enjoys higher social prestige than in New Orleans. This fact evinces a tendency.

Whither then are we moving? To those who look for an outcome in which caste shall vanish, and the lines between alien races shall be obliterated in a supernal brotherhood, I must say such is not my horoscope. A brotherhood exists now as real, as profound, as is felt here for any class by any other. It rests on our common humanity, and has been no more shaken by political agitators than your philanthropy has been undermined by the presence of a criminal class. Its necessity has, indeed, been enforced by the very fact of antagonism. But it must express itself by its own methods, its own self-directing consciousness, and not in forms prescribed by others unacquainted with the situation. Left alone, free from outside interference, our classes will adjust themselves naturally. But however interfered with, we who have inherited traditions of self-government will find our own methods and means to defeat external constraint or compulsion, no matter how strong.

As to the higher education of the white youth, it is meant to lift them to the plane of "serious thought," as President Dwight says; to produce in them "the thinking mind." They are capable of it; or, at least, in their ranks are superior breeds and groups of men in whom character has been wrought out by circumstance and upbuilt through heredity for untold millenniums. To them has fallen the birthright by that divine decree that sets at naught the petty projects and formal rules of men. To win in the race of life, to achieve success in anything, we must work with nature, not against it. To promote in the South a class who by their practical skill, their learning or their wisdom, by their serious thought, shall guide that portion of the union to a higher and better civilization, we must lay out our strength on the best men of our best class. Mr Vanderbilt did a wise, as well as a kind act, when he put a large endowment in the hands of able and pious persons to use for the benefit of men zealous for good works. Mr Paul Tulane and Mrs Newcomb each did a grand and noble deed, when they consecrated a large part of their fortunes to the higher education of the white youth of the South, through an institution unsectarian but Christian. After all, that word Christian in its best and highest sense is the key note of the whole subject. Christianity,

call it self-denial, self-effacement; nickname it altruism; disguise it as you please; yet in the end, the substance of it all is love toward God, through your neighbor. This constitutes Christianity, and this only is it that makes a truly civilized society possible and leaves us any hope for a future among men better than the chaotic present or the wretched past. This is to be realized in the South, as elsewhere by the higher education — the highest education — which culminates in the service of humanity, in forgetfulness of self, in the performance of our duties to others — to all.

**Andrew S. Draper** — It seems to me that this Convocation would be glad to express its appreciation of the presence of the president of Tulane University and of the scholarly and felicitous address which he has given us on a subject in which we are all much interested. With your leave, sir, I move that the Convocation tender to Pres. Johnston its most appreciative thanks for that kindness of heart which has led him to come here, and for that strength of mind which has induced him to give us an address which we so thoroughly appreciate.  
*Voted unanimously.*

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Wednesday morning, July 6

## SHOULD GREEK BE STUDIED BEFORE ENTERING COLLEGE?

PROF. BENJAMIN IDE WHEELER, CORNELL UNIVERSITY

It is the purpose of this paper as introductory to a discussion to briefly state the chief elements of the problem presented, and to offer with a minimum of argument one possible solution.

The attempts at readjustment of the traditional liberal curriculum in the past decade have directed their main force against the position of Greek in that curriculum. The discussions, conducted largely on *a priori* grounds, while they have notably enlarged the prevailing view of the meaning, aim, and content of a liberal education have not reached any practical solution. They have neither defined nor simplified the task of the schools; they have rather brought them confusion and helped increase their burden. The great stumbling-block in the way of our secondary education is not poor teachers, nor bad methods, nor inadequate equipment, nor even school committees, but it is the plethora of subjects. The secondary schools, as preparatory schools, teach too many things. Confusion of purpose and the lack of common understanding between school and college are largely responsible for this.

The discussions referred to, if they have as yet effected nothing else, have convinced us that a liberal education can no longer be absolutely characterized by the presence of particular studies, though they have not by any means convinced us that for educative purposes one study is as valuable as another. It can be no longer maintained, and is in fact, I believe, no longer maintained by the mass of educational authorities, that the study of Greek is an essential element of a liberal education. That it affords, however, the means of the finest literary training, and holds and will continue to hold a positively unique and unrivalled position among those studies whose purpose it is to re-think and re-live the nobler products of the liberated human soul, is more assuredly guaranteed to-day than ever before.

The enlarged idea of a liberal education affects not only the subjects involved in it, but makes it applicable to a vastly wider circle of men. Men of more diverse conditions and purposes are now seeking it. There is an increasingly large number of cases in which Greek is unsuited to the need. To put it frankly, Greek is too good for some men — for some men even who deserve a liberal education. It is too good for the need. It is too fine a tool for the work in hand.

In response, now, to a general demand for a broadening of the liberal curriculum, alternatives for Greek have in different forms been admitted into the requirements of many colleges, as at Harvard, since 1886, or, what would amount essentially to the same thing, if anything like equivalence were effected, courses have been established for admission in which Greek is replaced by a modern language. The general effect of these alternatives has been, and, so far as I know, with perhaps the exception of Harvard, still is, the lowering of the grade of requirement. The opportunity of avoiding Greek has unquestionably served, thus far, rather as a boon to scant scholarship than an emancipation to fettered aspirations. The taint which in consequence undeniably rests on these substitute courses can be removed only when their standards are made equal to or even higher than those of the classical course. They can never compete fairly and frankly with the classical course until then, and what is more, not until then can their real value be fairly tested. They are now a debased coinage. The old classical course still sets the recognized standard, and the new courses may be adjusted to it, and not it to the new courses.

The Greek question is therefore unavoidably associated with the general question of the standard of admission. Shall the pressure on

the school curriculum be relieved by continuing to push up this standard and lengthening the preparatory course?

During that period of unalloyed admiration of the German system, from which, if I am not mistaken, we are now emerging, and as I believe, fortunately, this elevation of standard was the treatment almost universally recommended for improving our educational system and healing all our academic ills. According to the pedagogic dream of that period our preparatory schools were to be made into German gymnasia by advancing the college requirements, and the veritable American university was to be created out of the college by treating the same with jack-screws from beneath and with the elective system from above. In the application of this recipe Harvard led the way. It is now becoming apparent that Harvard has gone farther than she is likely to be followed. A large part of our present difficulties in coordination is due in fact to a dislodgement of functions which this elevation has caused. The recent appearance of a demand for a three years' baccalaureate course is indeed a confession, either that the advance of standard has gone too far, or that the dream of creating the university out of the undergraduate college is abandoned.

The American equivalent for the German university courses is not to be created out of the American college; a certain part of that equivalent must be created *above* the college.

It spite of all that we may learn from the educational experience of other nations, we have now reached a point where we should make it clear to ourselves that we shall be obliged to find for our American educational problem a distinctively American solution. Among the terms of the problem must figure prominently the facts of existing institutions. The "small colleges" constitute a very stubborn fact. Most of them will resist rechristening either into academies or into universities. It must now be regarded as a settled fact that the German dualism of gymnasium and university is to be represented in America by the triad of academy, college and graduate school.

There is a vast fund of loyalty and of goodly traditions — if not always of money — vested in them that insures their persistence, and with them, of the old A. B. course as intermediate between the school education and the special or technical education. These colleges are better equipped for supervising the education of boys between the ages of 16 and 20, than between 19 and 23, as they are being forced to do.

The recent rapid development of graduate courses in American universities has, it furthermore seems, intervened to offset the



pressure from beneath and to help materially in finally arresting the upward tendency of the A. B. course.

The solution which our American problem is reaching is a practical rather than an ideal one, and is determined, as we have said, quite largely by the actual status and capability of existing institutions. The work of the school differentiates itself from that of the college, rather in the methods of instruction and tutelage, than in the studies pursued.

It is furthermore not likely that the school and the college can fully succeed in accurately apportioning between themselves the parts of subjects to be taught. It can not, for instance, be exacted of the schools that they shall teach the elements of all college subjects, nor can the colleges absolutely decline to teach the beginnings of all subjects which are taught in the schools. There are two considerations of weight in this connection:

1. The essential educational difference between advanced and elementary instruction in a given subject lies in the intellectual condition of the recipients of instruction.

2. The ideal of the *Einheitsschule*, whereby all pupils should follow the same preparatory course of study is impossible of realization in our system. A differentiation must begin at best three years before its completion.

It may therefore be regarded as incumbent on the college to teach the beginnings of any college subject which is omitted in any one of the recognized courses of preparatory study. That is to say, so long as the elements of German are not required in every preparatory course, the college will be compelled to furnish introductory instruction in German, just as in Hebrew. There are however practical limitations in the application of this principle. Thus there is no practical need for the teaching of elementary Latin in college. The elements of Latin are in the first place taught in all preparatory schools, and secondly, although the Latin may profitably be included in every preparatory course, if it should not be, it is in the case of a preparation for a purely scientific or technical course, which would, after the pupil had entered college, scarcely suggest the desire to begin this study. That the case is different with Greek, we shall attempt to show later.

The chief factors in the situation are therefore practically the following:

- 1 The length of the preparatory course and the average age of admission to college are not likely to be advanced beyond the point at



present observed in the great mass of New England and middle states colleges.

2 The final and absolute division of labor between the school and the college can not be found in assigning to the former the elements of the principal subjects taught in the latter.

3 The liberal or general college education of the future is not likely to regard the study of the Greek language as a *sine qua non*.

4 The practical necessities of existence in the preparatory schools require a limitation of the number of subjects taught, a discrimination between essentials and non-essentials, a strict formulation and, as far as possible, a unifying of the courses of preparatory study.

5 The solution of our problem concerning the relation of the school and college curriculum is likely to be a purely American solution, determined by the facts of existing institutions and vested interests.

In the light of these conditions the inquiry naturally arises: May not the beginning of Greek be postponed until the college course, its place in the school curriculum being taken by one of the modern languages?

An argument in favor of this solution might make use of the following considerations:

1 The amount of Greek at present taught in the schools is a mere fragmentary beginning. The results from the same amount of time spent on a modern language would be much more complete and satisfactory.

2 The chief strength would be put on Latin, and only one difficult language be learned at a time.

3 The study of Greek would be begun in maturer years, to which the relatively recondite character of the study might be considered better adapted.

4 The learning of a modern language before Greek is thought by many to represent a more practical and pedagogically a more correct order.

5 Acquaintance with a modern language at this earlier point in the curriculum would be practically serviceable.

6 The colleges can furnish far better instruction in Greek, which is a strongly specialized subject, than can the schools.

7 The pupil's decision concerning the future direction of his studies can be deferred to a later period.

In spite of the important concessions made in our introductory discussion, the following considerations can be urged against a change:

1 The study of Greek is so closely related to that of Latin both in matter and purpose that they belong together. The introduction of

a modern language is a move in the undesirable direction of dividing and scattering the curriculum, in place of giving it unity around a central stem.

2 A classical training is incomplete without Greek. Latin literature is essentially a Greek product. Greek is more complete in itself without Latin, than Latin without Greek.

3 If rightly taught, the two years' preparatory work in Greek, coming as it does after Latin has been well started, need not remain fragmentary in its results. The time should not be divided by the attempt to learn two distinct dialects, the Attic and the Homeric, but should be concentrated on the effort to acquire a reading knowledge of standard Attic prose with the essentials of Attic grammar.

4 Any attempt to arrange the secondary courses of study must take serious account of the existing status and equipment of the schools. It is of no small importance for us, when we are adjusting the college requirements, to learn what the schools can teach and teach well. The number of schools in this state taking the Regents' examinations in Greek was in 1887, 87; in 1891, 159; Number in Latin 1887, 205; 1891, 291. Percentage of increase: Greek 83 per cent, Latin 42 per cent. The number of papers sent to the office in 1891 was for the Greek 2.9 times as many as in 1887, for Latin 2.4 times as many. It is an undeniable fact that no American colleges have in the past few years enjoyed a more vigorous growth with more general signs of popular favor than Yale and Princeton, which have held rigidly to the old Greek requirement. The conditions in American education do not, to say the least, seem yet ripe for so violent a departure from the existing order as the discarding of Greek from the preparatory schools.

5 The question of the proper order for the learning of languages is one about which there is great disagreement. The argument has been conducted almost entirely on *a priori* grounds, and a settlement can be expected only on the basis of experience. A radical departure from existing standards in a great educational system should wait for more than *a priori* determinations.

In the meantime, however, and pending a settlement of current discussions, the following disposition of the whole language question in the preparatory scheme seems to us wise:

Let the preparation for the humanistic or literary courses of the college include two units of Latin and one each of either Greek, German, or French—the one unit of Latin to cover the grammar and Caesar, the other Cicero, Virgil and prose composition. Let the preparation for a scientific, i. e. a strictly scientific, and not a so-called

scientific or surrogate course, include two units of Latin and one each of French and German, or two units of German and one each of Latin and French, the units of German and French to be determined on the basis of the *Report of the Commission of colleges in New England* for 1889-90.

Let every college offer a course in elementary Greek extending through one year. With the greater maturity and the better linguistic training of the student, and with skilful leadership on the part of the teacher, it will be possible for the pupil to acquire in this time a good reading knowlege of simple Attic prose of the difficulty of Lysias, Xenophon, or Lucian. The student who presented Latin and German at entrance may then easily make good his deficiency in Greek, and by doubling his Greek work in sophomore year, as his advantage in a modern language will admit, may be at the end of that year on even footing with the regular student in arts.

There is no more reason why a college should be ashamed to offer elementary Greek than elementary German, after it once admits to its doors students without Greek. For such students elementary Greek is no longer a school study, but an advanced, recondite, or learned study as worthy of the college as elementary Sanskrit.

Since 1888 such a course in elementary Greek has been regularly and officially offered at Cornell University. For the year preceding, (1887-88) it was given unofficially. In a recent number (May, 1892) of *School and college*, Professor Charles G. Fay reports the recent introduction of a similar course at Tufts College. At Vassar the experiment has been tried for several years with marked success. Since the course has been given at Cornell it has been taken each year by from six to 11 students.

Different reasons have determined men in choosing it. Some came from schools where Greek was not taught, some had been forced by circumstances to an irregular or incomplete preparation in language. Some, either from a decision to enter the ministry or for some other reason, had determined late in their course to acquire a full classical education. Some wished to acquire merely the elements of the language as an aid in English studies or in the understanding of scientific nomenclature. Whatever their reasons they were always in earnest, and have generally accomplished in one year considerably more than the amount of the preparatory course. From one of the classes four are now classical teachers.

It must be clearly understood that this plan does not involve a trespass on the territory of the preparatory schools. It does so no whit more than the teaching of elementary German in the college.

No one can take the course in elementary Greek who has not been admitted to full standing in the college in some one of the regular courses, i. e. he will have presented for admission instead of Latin and Greek, probably Latin and French, or Latin and German.

The plan here outlined furnishes I believe a solution for many of our practical difficulties in mutual understanding. The colleges assume merely the burden of a one year course in elementary Greek. Students coming from schools where Greek is not taught are not finally debarred thereby from pursuing that study in college. Others who may wish to defer their decision of the question to a later period in their education are allowed to do so. Some who may prefer to acquire a modern language before Greek are allowed the opportunity without loss of advancement. The smaller schools which find it difficult to maintain instruction in two modern languages beside Greek and Latin can prepare their students for instance in Latin and German with the prospect that French or Greek, or both, can be commenced in the earlier years of college. But looked at as a whole the most important advantage of the arrangement would be that it affords opportunity for an experimental settlement of questions for which deductive reasoning has failed to furnish a universally satisfactory solution. In view of the vested interests of the existing order, and the strong grounds which can be maintained for its existence, it would evidently be unwisely and violently abrupt to remove Greek from the preparatory schools, but under the working of this plan the question would, we believe, in the course of years find its own natural and satisfactory solution.

The materials for a solution of the difficult problems involved in the coordinating of school and college, as well as in the whole subject of the order and content of our liberal education, are rapidly collecting and arranging themselves; the finally acceptable solution must be expected at the hand of experience and of disinterested wisdom, and not from theorist or propagandist.

### Discussion

Prin. D. C. Farr — In common with you all I have listened with great satisfaction and interest to the most admirable paper of Prof. Wheeler. Knowing the man and his reputation as a teacher of Greek, I was not surprised at the recommendations that he made; neither should I have been surprised if he had made even a stronger statement. A man that loves that grand language as he loves it, I do not wonder that he wants more of it; I was only surprised that he does not want it all. But I tell you that there are teachers in our academies

that love that language and say that they are bound to hold on to it. The statistics that have been given to us to-day are significant. Double, aye more than double the schools are doing this work in Greek to-day than in 1884. What does this mean? Does it mean that the schools are not competent to do this work? On the other hand, it means that they are better qualified to do it because as a rule men love to do the things which they are best qualified to do, and it seems to me that it is an unfortunate time, when this question of Greek is booming in our state, to call a halt. I would much rather that he had advocated that there should be another year of Greek added to the academic course, even if he added more to the college course, because I believe that the academies are just getting into line to do their best work in this direction. They have been trained all these years to do better and better work, and to-day I believe it is true that in this state of New York there are academic principals and academic teachers who are doing work in Greek worthy of college grade. If this scheme should be readjusted these teachers who have qualified themselves to teach Greek admirably would not be so well qualified to do other work; and the main objection seems to me to come in the lowering of the standard of our schools as a result of lowering the standard of Greek. A course in college means a certain definite amount of scholarly training and culture. I do not mean to say that every person who gets his B. A. gets all or as much perhaps of scholarly culture as some one does that has no title affixed to his name. I would not be understood as saying that, but as a rule the scholarship of the B. A. course stands better, represents more hard work, more full culture than any other course known to the American college, and it is an advantage all along the line to get these trained, these disciplined, these cultured men into our schools. We want to put in as principals the most scholarly and most cultured men we can get; men who are competent to teach Greek and all that it implies. To link German with Latin, or to link French with Latin would I think be a great loss. Latin and Greek should go together and should stand together. I remember on one occasion in a meeting of this Convocation that after a paper had been read from yonder desk advocating that science be substituted for the classics, the eminent mathematician, Charles Davies, said to the author in private conversation, which was however overheard by many, "Sir, you are an ass." He looked at him again and said, "I repeat it, sir, you are an ass; for I would rather, as a preparation for mathematics that a boy of mine who had but four years for training, spend three years in the higher study of the classics and one

on mathematics than four years on mathematics alone." A distinguished educator says that if he were to have a boy trained in the modern languages and he had four years of time for that culture, he would rather he should study the classics two years and modern languages two than to study modern languages four.

Some years ago it was my privilege to read a paper before this Convocation on this very subject. As a preparation for that paper I took the pains to write to all the leading educators of the country at that time, and many of them to-day are the leaders of educational thought, and there was not one dissenting voice in regard to the importance of a classical training in our academies as a preparation for good college work. It seems to me that if we lower the standard of Greek in our academies, or put it out altogether, we shall soon put it out of the college. Our students are in the academy at the age when they are most easily influenced. They make up their plans for their life work there; they determine their course of study in the academy, and if they leave the academy without the knowledge and training which comes from the study of Greek, instead of pursuing the classical course in college they will pursue a certain one of those nondescript courses which will result finally in their not having that all-round training which we believe all young men ought to have. There are a great many in our academies for whom Greek is too good; but there are a great many others who appreciate its value, and many principals will bear me out in this; that their experience teaches them that students in other respects equal, starting into a course of study on an equal footing, one taking an English course and another a classical course, at the end of the academic course will find that the student who has had the straight out and out classical course will do more difficult things more easily and more disagreeable things with greater pleasure than the other; and the result will be that the student who has been trained to think, trained to dig in Greek roots, will be better qualified to enter college and to do college work. I plead and plead strongly for the retention of Greek in our academic institutions, in the first place, because the students themselves need it. There is nothing that will better make a full-finished man than Greek, and we ought to think more of men than we do of things. The great trouble in our academic system is that we are magnifying things beyond men.

Prin. W. E. Bunten — I fully agree with my friend, Prin. Farr, in his approval of the most excellent paper to which we have listened, and I also agree with him as to the value of the classical studies, but



I must dissent from what he has said. I believe this move to reduce at least the amount of Greek taught in our preparatory schools is a move in the right direction, and specially for this reason: In all our schools we have many scholars who never intend to enter college, who study Latin and who desire to learn the beauties of the language of Caesar and Virgil, but not one in many of our schools studies Greek unless obliged to do so in order to gain matriculation to some college. The consequence is that in many of our schools we have a small class of one, two, three or four studying Greek and we are obliged to give to that class the same time and the same teaching that some principals would assign to a class of 12, 15 or 20, and this works an injustice to the other members of the school and to the taxpayers who support the public schools. I think this is a strong reason why the amount of Greek required in our preparatory schools should be materially reduced. We are now required to teach not only Xenophon and Homer, but Greek prose composition. I do not know how others feel, but I believe this: that while it is an advantage to be able to translate Greek, the ability to write Greek is of very little value. I do not want to write Greek, we do not want to do it, and it is a very different thing to learn to read a language than it is to learn to write it. So I think if this requirement of Greek could be reduced to one unit it would be a move in the right direction. I can not believe with Prin. Farr that this would be a lowering of the standard in our secondary schools. I know the value of Greek, but there are other studies and we must not ignore the value of things, if we do place the man above things. We live in a work-a-day world where success depends on ability to do things and to do them as well or better than anybody else. There is too much now in our preparatory school curriculum. We can employ all the time we have in a three or four years' course without compelling our students to take their time in learning how to write Greek prose, which they never will use after they leave our schools. The discussion of such questions as these almost always hinges on the interests of the few members of our schools who go to college. We should take into consideration the interest of that larger number who will never see the inside of a college except as visitors. Those men who go out from preparatory schools and engage in the business of life ought to know things as well as men; they ought to be prepared to enter into the competition of business life with a clear understanding of the relations of men and matter. I believe that we can employ the time in our secondary schools to much greater advantage by giving them this knowledge. I believe scientific study enriches life and I believe



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that those students are better equipped for the business of life if they understand these things. They do not get them from writing Greek prose or from the study of Homer, though these things are valuable, but they do get from the study of natural sciences knowledge that will enrich their everyday life, and better equip them for the business world. I believe that if we leave to the colleges the teaching of Greek, that young men or young women will be better prepared to master Greek; and there is no argument of force that the two things should be taught together. The Latin language is a language that every cultured person should understand. It can be taught without an accurate knowledge of the Greek and should be taught, I believe, thoroughly and carefully in all our preparatory schools. If the colleges desire that the preparatory schools should teach the elements of Greek I have no objection, but I believe, as the distinguished speaker says, that it is better in our preparatory schools not to study both the Attic and the Homeric dialects. The recommendations in Prof. Wheeler's paper are in the interest of sound progress in our educational system. If we could have our schools graded from the beginning up to the university; the academies, high schools and colleges doing their proper work, and above them the university, we could give all an opportunity to secure a liberal education without going abroad to study in an English or a German university. Then those who had completed their education would be not only Americans and patriotic citizens, but American scholars, to do honor to America distinctively. I believe that this great University of the State of New York and that this assembly of instructors should do all they can to bring about this ideal system of education for this state, and I am sure that these two forces can exert a great influence in that respect; that they can do much to put these things on a right basis. We can not enter this with a bound, but each year we can gain and grow until in a few years we will have an ideal system of education that shall be entirely and distinctively American.

Prin. C. T. R. Smith — I yield to no man in my admiration for Greek and in my belief that the study of the classics ought to stand foremost in a liberal education. But I wish to approach this subject from a practical standpoint. Desiring to know something of the actual results of the teaching of language, and especially of our own language, in our academies, this morning I stepped into the regents' office and having obtained admission to the upper regions, took up, with permission of the young lady in charge, the box of answer papers obtained in first-year Greek from the examination last month. There

was not time to go through this box of answer papers, but I took the first half dozen packages that lay on the top of the pile, each from a different school, and made memoranda of the first sentence\* from the outside paper of each package, as follows:

1 "And the happy day was to you expectant when Patagyas, a Persian man of the faithful followers about Cyrus, approaches and immediately as soon as he was meeting with the crowd he shouted that the king approaches with a large army."

2 "And it was already the middle of the day when Patagyas, a Persian man of the toward Cyrus faithful, appears and immediately he met with all those, he shouted that the king with a great army is coming."

3 "And already it was noonday when Patagyas a Persian man, one of those faithful to Cyrus, appeared and immediately to all whom he met, he shouted that the king with a large army was approaching."

4 "And afterwards when it was midday, Patagyas, a Persian of those who were faithful to Cyrus, appears and immediately he shouted to all whom he met that the king with a great army was approaching."

5 "And indeed, it was on a clear day, when Patagyas, a Persian of those being faithful to Cyrus, appears and at once a shouting began from all of them, that the King approaches with all the army."

6 "And when Patagyas was near several days, a Persian man of those faithful around Cyrus appears and immediately *meet* them shouted to all that the King was approaching with many soldiers."

I do not know what might have been the result of going through the entire box of papers, but I strongly suspect that the average result would not have differed greatly from the first six papers that were taken up, and that they may be taken as a sample of the English used in examinations by our students in first-year Greek.

One point which I wish to present is that we need more time in our preparatory schools for preparation in English. Our students come to us at 16 or 17 years of age, perhaps in some schools it may be earlier. We are required to prepare them for college in Latin, in Greek and in mathematics. There are three daily recitations in those subjects, one of which must be occupied with Latin throughout the three years; one by mathematics nearly throughout,—to fill its place in the odd half year we have some Roman and Greek history and other work; and then we have a third daily recitation—about 1800 recitations in all. Suppose that the preparation in Greek occupies from 400 to 600 recitations.

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\* These are examples of sight translation of pupils in first-year Greek.

Is it not clear that the preparation in English of the student who comes in from the grammar school to the preparatory school could not probably exceed in any of our schools 200 recitations? I believe that satisfactory work in English can not be done in that amount of time. If Greek could be eliminated from the course we could then have twice as much time for the study of English. Students could be brought to know something of the structure of the sentence and of the paragraph. There could be not only a theoretic knowledge of style, but there would be an opportunity for the needed practical training. I believe that a part of the time now occupied in the study of preparatory Greek might be better occupied with the study of English.

Another consideration is the work that might be done in modern languages in this time. From the regents' office this morning I obtained the following figures for the years for which the reports have not yet been published. In Xenophon's *Anabasis* in '89-90, 358 students were examined in the academies, 205 of whom were accepted by the regents. In the next year 421 were examined, of whom 322 were accepted—a gain of 50 per cent. In Homer the percentage of gain was somewhat smaller. There were 206 papers accepted in '89-90, and 260 papers accepted in '90-91, showing a gain very nearly like that which Prof. Wheeler mentioned in his paper. In German during the same years I found these results: In '89-90 there were 1276 papers presented in German translation, of which 638 were accepted—less than half, you will perceive. In the following year there were 1735 papers presented in first year German of which 1266 were accepted. In French the numbers were smaller. There were 206 papers accepted in '89-90 and 310 in '90-91, showing about the same ratio of gain in the number studying French as in the number studying Greek. From these statistics it appears that the number of students pursuing the modern languages in our academies in New York is between four and five times as great as the number that are pursuing Greek. It seems to me, Mr President, that the argument presented by the gentleman who preceded me is a sound one; that it is not right, at least in our public schools, in our free academies and high school, to take so large a proportion of the money expended for schools and put it on so small a number of students. That work might better be left for the colleges. The colleges could undoubtedly do it far better. As Prof. Wheeler has said, the instruction obtained in colleges would be given profitably by specialists and would be of a grade far more beneficial to the young man and young woman than the

instruction that can be given in academies by teachers who are harassed with overwork and unable to give the time to preparation for their recitations, that such a study as Greek demands.

For these two considerations then, it seems to me that the study of Greek should be postponed to the college course:

1 That there may be time for the thorough study of English.

2 That there may be time for modern languages and I believe that this time would be far better devoted to the study of modern languages than to the study of Greek.

One ancient language at a time is enough for a well balanced course. The study of modern languages appeals to a different department of the mental nature, and a well balanced course demands an all-sided development. The exclusive study of Latin and Greek as linguistics produces a one-sided development which can not be counteracted in future years in college.

Prin. Roland S. Keyser— My interest in this subject is that of a teacher in the secondary schools, and I confess that as a teacher in the secondary schools I have a very strong and very tender feeling for Greek. The question of Greek is simply a question as to whether we can teach Greek satisfactorily for admission to college in our secondary schools. By satisfactorily I mean well and at the same time so as to do the other work that we ought to do. I am personally in favor of an alternative between Greek and German for admission to college; not because I think that German is equal to Greek, but because it will widen the field from which good college students can be drawn. In the same way I think that the colleges will do the cause of education a service, as well as do themselves a service, if they will frankly recognize the fact that good preparatory training is given in our secondary schools to pupils who study no language at all, and if they will adapt the course to high school graduates. But in our higher institutions culture has properly the place of honor, and it seems to me that Greek is above all things the language of culture. I think it is Dickens who says that there is no more arbitrary choice in language than there is in stones; the best is the best, and Greek is the only one that has the texture. If we limit the study of Greek to our colleges and universities, a large number of pupils who ought to be looking for a course full of culture never reach it, and in our higher institutions it will be very liable to be studied just as Hebrew and Sanskrit are now studied. If we are to study Greek for philological purposes we can very well leave it to the small schools that have a special interest in it. If we believe that the Greek lan-



guage is the finest instrument for culture we ought to take special pains to give Greek a place of honor. I believe that the preparatory schools can do good work in fitting students in Greek for college. I think that for those who know nothing about the regents' examinations it ought to be said that the students who tried this Greek examination had studied Greek for only a year and were brought face to face with Greek they had never seen before. It is not remarkable that thinking of several things at once they were not able to express themselves in English. If you look in college for pupils who can write well and think well you will find that they are the pupils who have studied Greek. The question is, what kind of preparatory work can we do in Greek? We can do reasonably good preparatory work in Greek in the time we have. The amount of Greek required for the regents' college entrance diploma can be reasonably handled in our public schools in two years, and the colleges can reasonably expect that in that time good preparatory work can be obtained from the secondary schools. If it is true that our colleges do not get good preparatory work in Greek, it is because they do not want it; it is because they are willing to take pupils who are unprepared. Teachers in preparatory schools do not want to send pupils to college till they are prepared in Greek.

Prin. Joseph E. King — It seems to me that this paper, and this discussion, are most wholesome, and will preserve and enhance our interest in the hold we have on Greek. There is one thing particularly which I desire to say to the Convocation; that the taste for the study of Greek is largely due to the missionary zeal of the principals of the academies in our state and country. Young men have gone to college with a missionary contribution towards their tuition in Greek of from \$50 to \$100 a year on the start given them by the academies and their principals. It is because of the same love these men have had for this work that they have supplemented a full day's work by a class or two in Greek. It seems to me that those who are well equipped to give the Greek in the preparatory course will, as intimated by Prin. Farr, be likely to hold a better grade of men at the heads of our institutions. As soon as we dispense with the necessity of classical learning as a qualification for these heads the lower circle will be very clamorous to get these places. Let those who are well equipped to do this missionary work in preparing young men and young women in Greek have the pleasure of enjoying it.

Do not cut off the Greek prose; no one who can read accurately the second book of the Anabasis can fail to pass in prose. Let those do



the work who are equipped for it. Provide elementary Greek in the colleges and universities, but let the colleges receive the young men with all the academies can do for them. I was struck by Prof. Wheeler's remark that those who are better advanced can grapple with Greek more successfully. It happened to me once that a young man well on with Latin was struck with the idea of going to college. In six months he took the two years admirably and was among the foremost of his class. A young lady did the same in one year. This young man was good in English and admirable in Latin. If the colleges will provide elementary Greek for those who need it, we shall add 10 per cent to those who will enjoy the college course.

Prin. E. J. Peck — I have great admiration for the paper presented to us by Prof. Wheeler, and perhaps my admiration is the greater because he seemed to present a strong objection to taking Greek out of the academies. It seems to me that he laid more weight on this objection than he did on the other side of the argument. This discussion has so far been carried on mainly on the assumption that the high schools were made for the colleges and it has been left out of sight that the high school is the people's college and that the high school rightly conducted plants the germ from which the college students are stimulated to go on to a higher culture. In the high schools where Greek is taught the son of the gardener becomes fitted and inspired to become a college student and take the honors there. From these high schools the son of the day laborer becomes the honor man in the college course. It is the inspiration given to these students that in our experience has been the main incitement to carry them into higher study. I never have said to a student, "You ought to go to college," and of the many I have sent to college not one in 10 has ever had the idea of going there till after a year or two of study in the college preparatory course. I have put them into the college preparatory course and when they begin to think for themselves, then the idea of the real value, of the real purpose for which they are going to school, begins to bear fruit in their minds, and they come to me and say, "Do you think I ought to go to college?" and they go. As I said before, you take Greek out of our preparatory institutions and you will take away the great means of feeding our colleges with the best men, with the men who make our future orators, writers and thinkers.

Pres. Ethelbert D. Warfield, *Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.*— There has been one thing in my mind for a number of years, and that is the absolute necessity of beginning Greek before entering college.

I am an old believer in the old fashioned ways in getting everything. I was taught the multiplication table and catechism so early that I do not know just when it was. They are both somewhat mixed in my mind, but I find I can call up any part of them at any time. The old idea of teaching a boy Latin before he can talk and Greek as soon as he can talk is the right thing. I believe that languages are valuable and I believe the literary element of a language can only be brought out in any man's mind by long familiarity ; but on the other hand I very strongly believe that out of all our schools there comes an element to the college which finds out too late what is the real bent of a particular mind. Men who want Greek because they want to go into the ministry, men who want Greek for this or that reason are the men that will have it and must have it. I do not believe in making all men on the same model. I believe in making our high schools feeders of the great educational institutions. I believe in making them feeders of the world. I believe high standards should be held out to every man in these schools and he should be given every possible opportunity at every stage of his career. Greek scholarship I believe is the ground of all scholarship. I believe there should be no time when a man can not obtain this study. I believe that the preparatory schools should begin with Greek prose composition. We must read and write at the same time. No man would think of learning French without writing French. No man would think of learning mathematics in such a way that he could read and understand a problem in the book and not be able to reproduce it. We want to learn how to form the language even as we learn to understand how to read it. We want the disciplinary side as a method of training, but where it can not be obtained we want to press on in such a way that we shall hold out this as a special advantage which may be obtained in the different periods of the student's career. There are various classes who want higher education. I believe that the sons of many of our professional men have early opportunities for developing their minds, and they are right to begin the study of the languages earlier. I have seen, for instance in Pennsylvania, people somewhat more slow in development. At 20 they are just about ready to begin to master the classics and then is the time to make them begin. We do not want to push them into the languages too soon, but we want the opportunity of feeding them when they are ready. I do not think it advisable to crowd the preparation of Greek into two years. On the other hand, when it is necessary to crowd it into a maturer mind, that mind will grasp it. I think there should be some limitations in colleges, that is, those who delayed

the taking up of Greek till the beginning of their college course should be required to follow it for four years. I urge the study of Greek as a part of the study of English. Every language should culminate in the English language, so we should have the opportunity for the thorough mastery of our tongue. I am perfectly confident that English is neglected in most of our preparatory schools, and one of the most difficult things to get is a translation of any language into the English language, and for that matter to translate the average thought of the average boy into English is a very difficult thing. I believe that Prof. Wheeler's paper is eminently practical. I am for the B. A. degree which means at least two years' Greek, but when we have so many degrees I do not see why we should not have Greek from the beginning of the freshman year. We should at the same time encourage every preparatory school as far as possible to teach Greek thoroughly and to give the boys as much as possible, but do not let us leave it in such a condition that there is no hope but for a boy to go back several years and wade through two years of Greek in order to enable him to enter college.

Pres. J. M. Taylor — This matter of offering the Greek language to students is no longer an experiment at Vassar. We have tried it for at least 10 years, and it has been a triumphant success. We have tried it as an elective study for all members of the junior class who come into college without Greek. We admit students to Vassar College on German or French, providing that they bring Latin of course, but they can have German or French as a substitute for Greek. To those students who desire to take Greek we open a course in the junior year which is called a short course. The pupils have come to call it a condensed course, and it certainly is that, though it is not officially recognized as such. It is a hard elective course, but it is chosen by a large number of students, the number reaching for next year I think 15 or 20. In one year we are able to take the students up to the freshman year, reading *Anabasis* and Homer in the single year, and then they go on with the freshman class if they choose to in the senior year. The experiment has been very successful.

Pres. James MacAlister, *Drexel Institute, Philadelphia* — In my mind, the question here is not as to the value of Greek as an element of human culture. About that I think there can be no disagreement. Modern culture, all that is best in human life, comes very largely from Athens. I should say that from Jerusalem and Athens have come the highest elements of human life, the highest ideas of men. It seems to me, though, in discussing this question we are forgetful

of the fact that there have come into the world a good many other elements of human knowledge and human culture; we forget, I think, in discussing the value of Greek that we have modern literature, that we have Shakspeare, Wordsworth, Shelley, Tennyson, Thackeray and Scott, and I do not think that we ought to ignore the fact that the literature that these men have produced is of very great importance to human culture in our time. I was glad to hear from one of the gentlemen a plea for English. I should say the most important thing for every English speaking person in the world is to know his own language, to know his own language as a scientific language; and if I were asked which is the more valuable to Americans and Englishmen and the vast English speaking people of the world, Greek or his own tongue, I should say the latter without any hesitation whatever. We find our ideals of life, our ethical ideals, our ideals of citizenship, not in the rich, beautiful culture of Athens, but in the culture of our tongue and our own race. I think it is well to put in here a plea for English. I will yield to no man in my admiration for the Greek language, but I beg humbly and modestly to protest against this idea that the only instrument of human culture of real value, is the Greek language. I have no hesitation at all in saying that modern science is not only the most important thing to man in his relations to life, but a most important element in human knowledge and human culture. I do not think I would go so far as my friend Gen. Walker in the position he took for sciences a year ago before this Convocation. So far as I can learn he stood very much alone in what he said.

There is this other consideration in my mind, and that is the position of the secondary school in the educational system of the country. I read a little while ago an account of Eton College by the master of that great school which is a fair example of the English secondary school, and perhaps the best there is, corresponding very closely to our own. You recollect perhaps the statement he made as to the manner in which the work of Eton College is laid out. Out of a period of 30 hours in a week devoted to study, 16 are given to Latin and Greek, six are given to mathematics, four to modern languages, two to what he called history and geography, and two to science. I take it that if the standards of the colleges are to be maintained, that that is just about the measure in which the work must be laid out in the secondary school. If you are going to bring a boy up to the standards in Greek and Latin, those standards, if they are to be there at all, ought to be high. I do not think we ought to have a mere nominal examination in Greek. You must remember

that the secondary school has a place in our educational system. The vast number of graduates of the secondary school do not go to college. The academies' most important function is in elevating the general education and culture of the community, and I believe the number of students in the high schools has been increasing because of the fact that the old classical standards are no longer insisted on. I do not think that the two years that a boy spends in Greek in a secondary school are of any value to him whatever unless he supplements them with a college education. A boy never gets beyond digging roots in the first two years; he is largely occupied with simply the technicalities of the Greek language. There is no gain in that. The Latin problem is very different from the Greek problem in the secondary schools. I believe that all see the necessity of four years Latin as a part of the work of a secondary school, and I have been delighted indeed to hear from Prof. Wheeler the position he has taken. So far as my observation goes, it is the great Greek scholars of the country who take the liberal view of this question, and the experience of Harvard has shown that Greek scholarship has not suffered in that school by the system adopted there by Dr Eliot. I do not think that anything will be lost, but that everything will be gained by the colleges and universities from the adoption of what has been suggested. We should not forget that the secondary schools give the masses of the people that important secondary education in general literature, in science, in their own language and literature, which enhances the value of living. If this matter is left to take care of itself ample provision will be made for the boys and girls who desire to pursue a college course in accordance with the present plans, but if this controversy could be adjusted on the basis presented by Prof. Wheeler, I believe that the public high school and academy would be vastly enlarged in its ability to do good work and that the colleges would be greatly benefited.

Pres. H. E. Webster — It is useless to say with what delight we have listened to the paper of Prof. Wheeler. We can not in any way criticize it. The idea that has been held in this country that the smaller institutions could be driven from their position and made into academies, has always seemed to me to be impossible. I do not see how this is to be done. Many of them are well endowed, and I do not see by what authority they can be forced out of any position that they see fit to take and hold. I feel very much in regard to this question of Greek. I do not want to disturb things that are quiet. We know we are going to get something better. That paper

is a carefully made paper, but it introduces a great change in the instruction in this state and elsewhere. I should want to consider what effect it would have on the schools. I believe that Greek should be left in the academies as it is, and that in the meantime provision should be made in college to teach elementary Greek. I should want to consider how long it would be before the Greek would be taken out of the preparatory schools. With us at Union the thing is assuming practical form in this sense. We have courses in which no Latin is taught or required. A great many men after they have come to the college wish to take a course that involves Latin. We have assigned these men to tutors, good men among the seniors, and let them be instructed there; omitting certain things in the course which they would otherwise take so that they may have some time for Latin. Pupils who come there with the Latin often find that they prefer the classical course. I believe in that and work for that very decidedly. Practically, we have reached the position in that institution that Prof. Wheeler speaks of, although it has not as yet been organized, and before we do organize it I want to consider more carefully what the effect would be on our preparatory schools.

Prin. O. B. Rhodes — As an academic principal I agree most fully with Prof. Wheeler's argument and concur most heartily with his conclusions. I am one of those unfortunate principals who have been doing missionary work, as the gentleman has said, and have been doing it with a half dozen boys every year for 20 years as best I could. I have found in that teaching a compensation for much of the irksomeness and drudgery of academic work, but for one I am willing to give up not only the Homeric dialect but the Attic dialect, if thereby we may learn to teach fewer things a great deal better. I rise also as a principal of one of the schools under the regents' system to protest against that method of illustration which has been used on this floor this morning. We might take half a dozen papers from any subject in that examination and arrive at the same conclusions. I remember that the distinguished teacher, Matthew Arnold, said once that he asked one of his students in reading Macaulay to paraphrase the sentence "Canst thou minister to a mind diseased?" and he said he got the answer "Can you wait on a lunatic?" Am I to judge the efficiency of that teacher's teaching by the inefficient answer of his pupil? I remember also asking a young lady in reading one of Wordsworth's poems to paraphrase the sentence "Shall I bootless kneel?" and she said she thought it must mean that a man ought to take off his boots before he said his prayers. I do not think any of those papers which the gentleman read came from my institution.



## HIGH COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

*Are the abnormally high requirements for admission maintained by a few colleges an injury to higher education?*

## Discussion

Prof. Ephraim Emerton, *Harvard University* — When I saw the announcement of this subject I was somewhat at a loss to know just what was meant by the word “abnormal,” but on reflection I concluded that it had been used to mean “exceptional,” and that the purpose of this subject was to bring about a discussion of the diversity in the requirements for admission to college, and to raise farther inquiry whether the fact that certain colleges required very much higher standards than others was an evil. I have thought the subject over, and it seems to me there are two phases of it that I should like to present. One question is this: Is it an evil in itself that certain colleges require more for admission than others? and the second question is, Are the requirements of other colleges too high? Do they ask too much? I will apply myself first to the former. I may perhaps be pardoned if I use Harvard as an illustration. The requirements for admission to Harvard College at present demand, I believe, if the evidence of teachers can be taken, fully six months to a year more work than those for admission to most other colleges. We have been trying this experiment at Cambridge for some time. The alternative to diversity is of course uniformity. In the conditions of education in our country at this time diversity is an absolute necessity to progress. If we were living in Prussia of course the solution of this question would be a very simple one. There would be a set of regulations made for making a uniform requirement for secondary education throughout the country. Schools would be organized which would meet those requirements, and the student passing through those schools would be at once in condition to enter a university. Everybody would know what he had studied. That situation of things is impossible in this country. There is no central body which can make anything more than suggestions on this point. If the colleges of the country should come to an agreement as to a uniform requirement — supposing such a thing were possible — it would usually be a lower standard; uniformity would mean leveling down, because the conditions of our secondary education are so diverse; the schools and colleges are of very different capacities; some have great resources and some have less. A uniform standard would not be a higher standard, but one considerably lower. Would that be a desirable



state of things in this country at this time? It seems to me that what we have done in education the last 20 years would say that it would not. The only way we can advance is by certain institutions taking the lead in making experiments. Some institutions can afford to make experiments, others can not. Any one looking over the history of admission requirements during the last 20 years knows that they have been raised by that process. Certain institutions have made experiments and other institutions have followed as they could. They have let those make the experiments who proposed to do so. If this has worked well up to this point it seems reasonable to suppose that it will work well in the future.

There is another reason why this would be a very difficult situation for us at present, and that is that our secondary education in this country unfortunately has never stood in the honor in which it ought to stand. The profession of the secondary principal has never been a profession towards which our educated young men have looked deliberately as a profession for life. It is a hard thing to confess, but it seems to me that those who know the men who are in secondary education to-day, and none know it better than they, know that it has been a struggle for them to maintain this profession of secondary education in honor. As one looks over the young men at college to-day who are looking forward to professions, how very few of them consider the profession of the secondary teacher. They think of entering the legal profession, the profession of theology, the profession of medicine, and very few choose the profession of the secondary teacher. That is an indication that this profession is not in condition at the present day to make its own standards and make them every year. Secondary education should stand on its own bottom. The persons in charge of it should make requirements for themselves which would lead by natural steps to a higher education. As things are at present, it seems almost that the secondary education must be drawn out by the influence of the higher education. If this be true, then how is the higher education to effect secondary education? How is it going to exercise this drawing influence? Evidently by the prescription of certain requirements, and if certain institutions can prescribe higher ones than others they will to that extent elevate the profession of secondary teaching, and in doing that they will advance the interests of their own teaching, for what effects any one part of the educational body effects the whole.

May I say a word on the other side of this question? Harvard College takes young men now at the average of 18½ years, and a little more. That in itself suggests at once that the requirements are too

high. But it is not, I believe, very much above the age at which young men enter other colleges. If you look at the time it is going to take a graduate of college to get into active professional life, it seems very high. Is this a necessity? Ought the age to be 18½? Those of us who have looked into this question most carefully are pretty nearly united in believing that there is no need of this advanced age; that it would be possible to meet the requirements for admission to Harvard College certainly at the average age of 18, and many of us believe at a considerably lower age. Bear in mind that the boy may now be fitted for college along different lines, and also that the admission along all these lines is equally difficult. It is not true that the change from the absolute requirement of Greek for admission has resulted in the lowering of the standard of admission in any respect. On the contrary, it has been more difficult for a boy to enter college without Greek than to enter with it.

The requirements at Harvard College at present are not too high. I only ask you to read the article of Pres. Dwight of Yale in the *Forum* of 1890 on what a young man ought to know, as an argument on this side of the question. If this point is well taken, that our requirements are not too high, and that some one or more of our colleges must meet them, it seems to me we have demonstrated the fact that there are no abnormally high requirements for admission to college.

Prof. H. S. White — In reading the subject of this debate I was struck at once by the begging of the question which apparently appears in the first sentence: "Are the abnormally high requirements for admission maintained by a few colleges, etc." and I found myself at once asking the question, Are the entrance requirements to any of our institutions abnormally high? and that question I would answer in the negative. It seems to me that the entrance requirements are not abnormally high, that they are where they ought to be, and that the effort should be not to diminish those requirements, but to bring the general level of entrance requirements of colleges up to the point now reached by the highest. As was stated by Prof. Wheeler, the standard of the course in arts is not to be lowered, but the standard of the courses where Latin and Greek are not required are to be brought up to that point. I think this conclusion will be justified by examining first absolutely those requirements and then calculating the amount of time which properly ought to be bestowed in meeting them; and secondly by examining the course of the high school and academy throughout the country and making the same computation.

I think this conclusion will be reached, that if a student begins his course early enough and continues it uninterruptedly that he will reach that point of requirement which we desire before the age of 18. Of course for students who begin their academic preparation at a later period, the belated class, any set of requirements would seem abnormally high. The question is often asked by college professors, specially those who are somewhat ignorant of the courses in the preparatory schools, what is a youth doing between the ages of five or six and 19, the time when he appears at the institution? We have had an object lesson to-day from the regents' examinations, and I received myself last evening another object lesson in this same connection, and coming as it did before this debate it seemed to be rather significant. An application has come from a young man for admission to Cornell University. This young man held what he called a 70-count regents' certificate. He is a graduate of a small school in the western part of the state, in a town of some 2,000 inhabitants. This certificate covered, beside the common branches, advanced English, English composition, rhetoric, German first and second year, Latin first year, Caesar's Commentaries, Cicero's Orations, Virgil's Eclogues, advanced arithmetic, algebra, plane geometry, plane trigonometry, astronomy, physics, advanced physics, physical geography, botany, physiology and hygiene, Greek history, Roman history, English history, United States history, civics, bookkeeping and drawing. I think that Prof. Emerton would admit that these requirements under the system of substitution would very nearly admit this young man to Harvard College. His age is 14 years and six months. This young man will be obliged to wait upon the farm for 18 months before he is ready for Cornell University at the minimum age of 16 years, and will have plenty of time to get up in Greek. This case seems perhaps exceptional. I find in the same family there are four others, one of whom received the academic diploma at the age of 16 years and two months, another at the age of 15 years and two months. A third member of this family obtained the regents' academic diploma in the following subjects in addition to the preliminary: algebra, American history, physical geography, physiology, rhetoric, plane geometry, civil government, history of England, astronomy, physics, four books of Caesar, six books of Virgil, first year German. The age of this person was 12 years and nine months. This goes to indicate that in some way some persons get this at an age far below the age of admission to the universities. This matter was discussed in the New England meeting of colleges and preparatory

schools last fall very thoroughly, and the following conclusions were reached:

1 That the requirements were not abnormally high.

2 That the academies must dip down into the grammar school course and take their students at an earlier date.

3 That the curriculum of the grammar school must be enriched by introducing the study of modern language at an early period.

This was President Eliot's proposal, that subjects like geometry and possibly algebra might be introduced into those schools. The alternative was to introduce the elective system at a much earlier period. That will be the solution of many of our difficulties; it has been the solution of many of our difficulties in the universities. It is said that there was a plethora in the school curriculum; if we introduce the elective system, plethora of subjects means simply plethora of teachers; that there must be more teachers and smaller classes. Let the elective system begin at an earlier period and what is the difficulty? It is a mere matter of dollars. I suppose this Convocation would not stumble at a question of dollars and cents if there is no intellectual difficulty. We point out the way and the appropriation, we hope, will follow; at least we must hammer away at that idea. One thing about the Harvard requirements is their variety. How may this variety be made easiest for the student? It is a painful process to call on a young man to pass at any one given arbitrary point in his course in all the subjects that he has studied before. Harvard college and other institutions to meet that difficulty have instituted divided examinations, examinations in different subjects to avoid the uncertain double trip which otherwise would be necessary. These are merely local difficulties. It seems to me that the solution of this difficulty lies largely in the system of admission by certificate. That system has its dangers and its evils, but it has this great advantage, that it allows the candidate to take these subjects naturally and normally where they belong. He takes them at the proper year of the course, and in the final year he takes the advanced subjects, and if the head of the school vouches for his scholarship the college accepts him provisionally with a later day of judgment in his course. Another alternative for those who object to the system by certificate would be to lessen the number of subjects, eliminating the minor topics. Harvard College has dropped entrance requirements in arithmetic. Why examine in geography? Why examine in physiology? Yale College has dropped the entrance requirement in English. What if we should examine only in higher mathematics, languages, etc? The cry would be immediately raised, there is no

science. The scientific men of the country are crying out that science should appear among the entrance requirements. This question could be solved by the certificate system.

I should like to call attention to an educational experiment going on in California. The Stanford University has recognized theoretically the equivalency of all subjects that are offered. Any candidate who presents a sufficient quantity is admitted. I do not say that this is the wisest conclusion. It is an experiment which other institutions are watching with great interest, and are glad that they are not called on to make it themselves.

Prof. Adolphe Cohn — I appear here in a double capacity, having had experience not only in Columbia College where I began my American university career and where I now teach, but also in Harvard University, with which I was connected for several years, and with the entrance requirements of which I am sorry to say that I have had much experience. All my college colleagues who are here will sympathize with me, some of them from recent actual experience, when I tell them I am just now out of the drudgery of reading my entrance examination papers.

This question when I first read it on the program of the session, seemed to me as it had to my friend, Prof. Emerton, very strange. I wondered where in the land was situated a college that had abnormally high requirements for admission. I had been under the impression that they had been connected with the one that was said to have the highest requirements, and I had never seen anything abnormally high except the great and broad culture that the freshmen brought with themselves on entering. The interpretation given to the word "abnormal" by Prof. Emerton undoubtedly must be commended by this Convocation to the future editors of dictionaries of the English language. We will translate "abnormally" by "exceptionally"; but the main question was simply the second one that Prof. Emerton took: Are those requirements too high? I may perhaps slightly jar the feelings of some of my hearers if I make here a proposition which to me seems of the greatest importance; it is that there is an essential difference between the standards of primary and secondary education on one side and those of higher education on the other. The standard of primary education is essentially a national standard. Any primary education ought to give to the child that which the country concedes is absolutely necessary to every one of its citizens. In the higher education something quite different is to be done. The standard of higher education

can not be established by each country for itself. It is an international standard. It is through higher education that each country takes its place among the scholarly countries of the whole globe. When a college which gives all the degrees from the B. A. to the Ph. D. receives a young man, the question before us is "Is this young man, if well gifted, well endowed by nature, in such a condition that with our best endeavors we can in six or seven years make him the peer of the scholars of the world of the same age?" Some colleges of this country are doing it. They are doing it and it is a wonder to me when I see the freshmen of the different colleges that they can do it. They are doing very remarkable work in this direction, but to ask them to admit students of a lower grade of development and to do the same work in the same amount of time is to ask them to perform an absolutely impossible task. Together with this request for a lower standard of admission comes the request for advanced requirements for admission to the college course. There must be a solution of the problem. There is an evil. We would not hear all these devoted principals of secondary schools complain of high requirements if there were not an evil somewhere. I must say that looking at the students and looking at the amount of time which is so sparingly given to the secondary school principals for the education of these young men, I am more surprised even with the results they obtain than I am with the results that are reached in college. The evil in my mind lies there. The young boys and girls between the ages of 10 and 17 or 18, at which they enter college, are not encouraged by their families to take a sufficiently seriously view of what I do not hesitate to call their social position. Every occupation in a well ordered community is a public office. The school-boy has his public office; he is a school-boy, just as his father is a lawyer, a banker, a merchant, a professor or farmer. Unfortunately, my experience with boys tells me that they consider everything else their calling except their schooling. This is the secret. I heard one of the members here mention the number of hours which he considered devoted to preparation for college. During my preparation for college I had to give 700 hours of recitation a year to it, and I can assure you that this schooling did not weaken me or my friends physically. We had plenty of time for physical exercise, plenty of time for the natural jollities of a boy's life; but it never came to my mind that the hours spent by us in the secondary schools were taken from our legitimate calling. It never came to our mind that we had a right to enjoy all the good things of life till we had performed our task, till we had acquitted ourselves of our duties to our families and to society. I must say that the



problem seems to me in a way to receive wise solution here. Many of the things that I now hear give me great hope. One of the members here present called our attention to the fact that in the secondary schools not simply the boys preparing for college should be thought of, but the boys who are not preparing for college. Let the principal of the secondary school try his best to educate as highly as he can those boys while he has them under his charge and the problem will be solved. Let the boys go to college at 18 because their minds are able to work for themselves, and then there will be no need for a college to insist on entrance requirements.

The secret of success lies in the attention paid to the teaching of the English language. This is the grandest study in any country of the world, the teaching of the mother tongue. It is the chief study, the one important study, because for a philosophical reason; not because it is the language of the land, but because it is the only link between the different branches that are taught in the school. Let not a single lesson in arithmetic or history or Greek or French or German be given that is not also a lesson in English. Let no boy be allowed to use such English as we are ashamed to find in the entrance papers that we have to correct. Only a week ago I had to read a translation from French in which one third of the boys at least wrote "breaking a pane of glass," "braking" and "pain." Let every teacher insist that a boy shall use plain English in the class room as he insists on his having clean hands when he enters therein. Let every exercise, no matter how correct, be returned for rewriting when the English is incorrect, so that when a boy comes to the age of 14 or 15 or 17 he will be as sure of his English as he is of his multiplication table. It is a problem of the family. I am glad to see so many ladies in my presence, so many mothers and future mothers. They have the problem in their hands. Let the schooling begin at home; let no slovenly, incorrect English be used. Let a boy understand that he debases his boyhood when he presents to his instructor in a translation a sequence of words that has no logical sequence, and the entrance requirements of any college will be considered too low and the cause of education will have made as great a progress as is possible.

Willis Boughton, *University of Pennsylvania* — A large portion of our college graduates go into the professions. I can speak only of my own profession, which is teaching. Suppose a college president wishes a teacher in any department, and suppose there are two or more candidates; one of them from a small college or a college doing inferior work or a less amount of work than the other, which candi-



date will receive the appointment? Will it not be the candidate from Columbia, from Cornell, from Harvard, or from any of our institutions where the entrance requirements are exceptional. In every case the candidate from another institution will meet with a cold reception. Now, if it is exceptional preparation that the college gives, if he is better prepared for a position in a college as a teacher, can the college do less work? If it can not do less work, can the requirement for admission be lowered? I do not believe that it ought to be lowered. There is however a gap in the school system in most of the states. It may not be so in this state but it is in some of the states. The gap is between the grammar school and the high school. Three years ago in Cincinnati there was a gap of a year at least. The students on graduation from the grammar schools were admitted to the high school, and if they could keep up with their classes they were graduated from the high school. It seems to me that it would be practicable for our secondary schools to advance their work. With us nearly all of our students in all of our schools are going to be bread winners. The most of them will not pass farther than the grammar school; a few may enter the high school, but it seems to me that the grammar school ought to prepare a bread winner for life. Then our academies and our colleges ought to be preparatory schools to our best universities, those that are doing the most advanced work. I believe that Prof. Wheeler in his remarks said that the most of our college graduates were not prepared for university work, that they are not mature enough for university work. Is not that often the case? If students are to do university work the college ought to prepare them for it, and the more work we can crowd into our college the better it can prepare them.

A. W. Norton — For the last 15 years I have had my eye directly on what is called primary work. If you will allow me then from a standpoint of experience to make some statements of fact I would like to express a judgment. It has been said by the speakers who spoke as a matter of observation and theory that our courses may be shortened before they reach the academy. I am quite sure of this as a matter of daily experience and judgment. In most schools in most cities the courses of instruction, of assignment of lessons and all matters of that kind, have been dominated by the poorest pupils in the school, boys who are there because they are persuaded to go, who have no desire to study, and who have a desire to interrupt the school. In our larger cities till recently the pay of the teacher has depended on the number of pupils which she could graduate from one class to the next. The brightest in the class there-

fore were left to themselves and the teacher narrowed her efforts to the few on whose passing her salary depended. You can see what an effect that had on the brighter members of our schools; in all of our schools the brighter pupils have been neglected; they have not made the progress they ought to have made. If the courses were so arranged in our schools that those who do not care to work were put in a class by themselves, leaving those who do care to work to progress as their individual power dictated and promoting them individually so that they might reach the end of the grammar school course as fast as lay within their power, ample time would be gained to prepare for the higher requirements of these colleges. For instance, in the school over which I am supervisor we have one student who was in the sixth year of school when she left. She comes back because of the inspiration of a cousin and in six months she has made more progress than those who stayed in her class all that time in school. If we can have proper teaching and will allow the pupils to pass on just as rapidly as their attainments admit, we shall have gained the time for which these gentlemen are asking.

## EXAMINATIONS AND DEGREES

### THE SPECIALIST VS THE M. A. DEGREE

Prin. Marcellus Oakey — What is in a name? For generations we have been ringing the chimes over the problem contained in the question "What is in a name?" For the solution of that problem and the depths which lie underneath its calm surface, I presume the philosophers of the present day would have substituted a much milder question, and instead of asking for a solution of a profound problem would have merely asked us, What degree? What title shall it wear, what name shall we give it? The biographer of the coming man will not be concerned by the trials, the struggles, the hardships through which his subject passes and has passed to final triumph and grand achievement, but will be concerned chiefly in relating the number of degrees that were attached to his name; like the pedigree of a horse irrespective of the fact whether he is spavined or not. He shall be simply concerned in unraveling how he won or where he obtained his degrees and for what his degrees stand. In this age of advancement, why should it not be that at every step of the specialist's life he shall be dominated by some new title, very much as a few years ago we used to give merit and reward cards, and perhaps a chromo now and then to stimulate work? Why should not the specialist have as a stimulus a new title to add to the end of his name, to appear as a new dignity at every step of his onward progress? If he is to be

a specialist why not let the world know it by declaring that he has won a new degree? If he is to have an added power or faculty by development in the course of study, why not let the world know it? It seems to me that in all this progress in degree-giving we forget entirely that the bestowal of a degree simply means a certain matter of preparation; that a man had far better be known by the work he is doing and far better be known by the man he is, rather than by the degrees by which he has been prepared to do his work. But, however, if it becomes essential, if it becomes best, if it is wise to call a specialist by his degree at every step, there is a large class, a multitudinous class, who know only a very little of a very many things, and who do not know much of anything—who are trying to do their little all in the work that is in hand that never will win such degrees as may be plastered all over the specialist. If we are not able to do the specialist's work, shall we be deprived of the honor of the title which has been conferred on us? Or, if you choose to label thus the specialist, if you choose to give to the M. A. degree a pedagogic character, more distinct and clear than it has at present, what shall you do with those who have already obtained the degree under its general nature? Shall you label the new pedagogue as a James Archibald Johnson, Columbia M. A. old style; or one who shall receive his M. A. degree under the new character, shall you name him M. A. Cornell new style? How shall the difference in the degree be known? At any rate, if the degree is to be changed, if a man is to be known by the steps he has taken, not by the work he is doing, not by accomplishment and achievement, let alone that which we have in the past and that which at present exists and give a new pedagogic degree; when you graduate your pedagogue from the academy give him the degree of a good pedagogue; when you have him a bachelor from college give him a college degree; if he passes farther on give him the degree of J. P.; if he passes farther give him the college degree of C. P., and if he gets clear up into the university and shelved there, give him the degree of U. P.; but above all things I beg of you do not disturb that nondescript degree as it now exists. To paraphrase it, if you will pardon the paraphrase,

Regents, spare the degree, touch not a single bough;  
In youth it shaded me, it still protects me now.

### General discussion

Pres. J. M. Taylor — I think there is shocking abuse of this whole matter of degrees in our educational system. Two or three years ago when I was called on to present this subject before a conference

as chairman of the committee, I remember making some remarks regarding it, and the Convocation at large seemed to be in hearty sympathy with it. I took encouragement from that fact, notwithstanding that at a meeting of the regents on the same day a degree was given which seemed to be contrary to the spirit which was manifested in the morning session; but this year as I have looked over the list of degrees granted by a number of the prominent colleges of the country as reported in the newspapers, I confess that I have been sorely disappointed to see what has seemed to me a return to the old system of things. The degrees which we supposed had been reserved for examination only had been given by prominent colleges as honorary. The degree of B. A. even, unless the newspapers have misrepresented the matter, and I can hardly think that they have represented it fairly, has been given in two or three cases by Harvard University. Prof. Emerton shakes his head and I am glad that he does. It was reported in the *New York Tribune*, but I am glad to see that it is a mistake.

The degrees of M. A. and Ph. D. have been given over and over this year, not by small or insignificant colleges, nor colleges that are supposed to have low standards, but by prominent colleges in this state and New England. I do not think it is creditable to our educational system, and I am very sorry to see this return; but I suppose that just as in political matters, so in this matter that interests so many of us regarding the civil service, there must be tides up and down, a gradual ebb and flow. We must work and talk and hope and perhaps a better day will come, but it does seem to me that the colleges in our own state and in the country at large ought to take firm ground in this matter, and that the M. A. and Ph. D. degrees should stand always for degrees given on examinations, never for honorary degrees.

Prof. H. S. White — I hope the spirit of this Convocation will be felt, as it ought to be felt, in the state and country at large. I am glad to say that I am connected with an institution which grants no honorary degree of any kind.

Prof. Ephraim Emerton, *Harvard University* — I fear that an impression might be left on this Convocation that Harvard College had granted the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in honor. That I am sure is not true. The degree of Doctor of Philosophy has never been given by Harvard College *causa honoris*.

Wednesday afternoon, July 6

## THE SEMINARIUM: ITS ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS

PROF. EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN, COLUMBIA COLLEGE

The word seminarium has a very un-American sound. Yet like so many other plants of exotic growth it has been successfully transplanted to American soil. Not only has it become thoroughly acclimatized; but with characteristic American energy, attempts are continually being made to foster its growth in places and under conditions entirely unsuited to its development. What is the real meaning of the seminarium, what are its methods and its limitations?

The original home of the seminarium, it is well known, is to be found in the ecclesiastical schools of the middle ages. The medieval "seminaries" were, as the word implies, veritable seed-plats, institutions in which the youthful would-be religious writer and teacher was taught to unfold the seed of doctrinal disputation, of theological acumen and of pulpit eloquence. The medieval seminaries, however, like the medieval universities, were called upon to perform a two-fold task. They were supposed on the one hand to impart to the students a comprehensive knowledge of particular topics, and on the other hand to teach them methods of special work. This latter part of their duties was gradually relegated to an inferior place in the institutions of the 17th and 18th centuries. In the theological seminaries of America it has until very recently played but a minor rôle; while the creation of general seminaries throughout the land, devoted solely to the ends of high school education, has hopelessly discredited the word. A seminary, in American parlance, has become a place where a not very high grade of secondary education can be received.

With the revival of the interest in science in Germany there came a change. By science, I do not of course mean natural science. The philosophical, the political, the philological disciplines are assuredly as purely scientific as the mathematical or physical or biological. Not so very long ago it had become the fashion to denote by "science" simply the group of natural sciences, and to speak in a rather patronizing tone of the other domains of human knowledge. This was to be ascribed in part indeed to the presumption of the advocates of these youthful disciplines; in part also to the reaction against the philosophical mysticism and transcendentalism of the times. But the main reason, as I take it, was the one that especially concerns us here. These new disciplines — the natural sciences — prospered and grew

strong chiefly because they laid hold of and subserved to their ends the important feature of the old medieval seminary idea. They transformed and assimilated this feature and converted it into the principle of original research, of laboratory work. The laboratory is the seed-plat of natural science. And it is to the immense and successful extension of laboratory work that we owe the marvelous development of natural science, and the frequent identification of natural science with science in general during a part of the 19th century. If the philosophical disciplines, in the larger sense of the word, were to retain anything of their pristine position, it would be absolutely necessary to quicken them into renewed life by the application of the same principle.

And thus it was that there came about, modestly enough at first, the employment of the seminarium method in Germany. In the beginning used by a few eminent teachers of philology and history, it spread rapidly, until it has become to-day the very core of university work. The seminarium is to the moral, the philosophical, the political sciences what the laboratory is to the natural sciences. It is the wheel within the wheel, the real center of the life-giving, the stimulating, the creative forces of the modern university. Without it no university instruction is complete; with it, correctly conducted, no university can fail to accomplish the main purpose of its being.

The seminarium may be defined as an assemblage of teachers with a number of selected advanced students, where methods of original research are expounded, where the creative faculty is trained and where the spirit of scientific independence is inculcated. Starting out from this definition it will be profitable to discuss in turn the nature and methods of the seminarium, its advantages, its dangers and limitations.

The seminarium is, in the first place, a peculiarly university feature, and an indispensable adjunct to true university work. The difference between the college and the university I take to be this: the college is the place where men are made; the university is the place where scholars are made. The college attempts to develop all the educational sides of a young man's character; the university confines itself primarily to one side. The college gives him an all-round training, it teaches him to think and to express himself, it acquaints him with the general trend of human knowledge, but it at the same time lays stress on his physical development and to a certain extent on his ethical development; the college wants to turn out true men, gentlemen—men in attainments, in manners, in physique. The most successful college is the one that best combines all these various



duties. As Cicero expressed it, the college is to give the education befitting the gentleman. The university on the other hand has quite different aims and purposes. With general all-round knowledge it has nothing to do; for the candidate for university degrees is expected to have already received this general groundwork of training. With physical and ethical or religious training the university has still less to do. Its students are men, not boys; men with serious objects in view, who have neither the leisure for nor the necessity of frittering away their time in athletic pursuits: men whose ethical and religious nature is presumed to have been developed so that they need no further tutelage or moral supervision from their lay preceptors. To sum it up in a word, the college is the place for general education; the university is the place for specialization. In the college students are taught to imbibe; in the university they are taught to expound. In the college the goal is culture; in the university the goal is independence.

But how can this purpose of the university be best attained? The university lectures are indeed good so far as they go; but in themselves they do not fully accomplish the desired end. The university lecture is supposed to give the special student knowledge of his special work. The university professor who is worthy of the name will afford his students what they can not find in books, otherwise there would be no need of attending lectures. He will not only keep his classes informed as to the latest progress and recent thought in the particular field, but will endeavor to expound his own views, to mould the mass of existing knowledge of the topic into a plastic whole, and to shape it by the imprint of his scholarship and his convictions. The university student goes as often to hear the professor as to attend the course. The function of the university lecturer after all is, in the main, to present in compact form the actual condition of the subject; to show the seeker for truth how far the specialization of knowledge has advanced. Specialized information, particular knowledge, — that is the watchword of the university lecture course.

But this in itself is only one-half, and in truth the lesser half, of university work. There remains the instruction in method, in original research, in critical comparison, in creative faculty. Mere knowledge of what others have done, while of supreme importance in preventing sciolism, will in itself never make a thinker. It may give erudition, but will never give method. Were university instruction confined to university lectures, the outlook for the perpetuation and advance of science would be dark indeed.



Let us ascertain, then, the advantages of the seminarium. The advantages are two-fold: the advantages to the student; the advantages to the instructor.

In the first place we must note the creation of ties of friendship between the students. In the university, as opposed to the college, the students are as a rule unacquainted with each other. There are commonly no athletic sports, no secret societies, no organizations for mutual good fellowship, to draw the students together. The university students come primarily to work, and have neither time nor inclination for these outside pursuits. They enter the lecture room as strangers, and depart as strangers. The seminarium, which collects the ablest and brightest students around one table, gives them an opportunity of gauging each other's abilities, of familiarizing each with the other's strong points, of laying the seeds of future collaboration in scientific or professional work. The value of such acquaintanceship can not be overestimated. Every one who has worked in a seminarium as a student will testify to the fact that he has carried with him not only pleasant memories but also the inspiration from stimulating arguments with his fellow members. The seminarium does in this respect for the better class of university students what the debating society and fraternity do for the college student.

In the second place we notice the increased familiarity with the recent literature. The average student will be content to follow his lecture and do nothing more. He desires to pass his examination, to attain his degree; and he imagines, generally correctly enough, that if he is thoroughly acquainted with his professor's exposition, he will somehow pull through. A few students may be so interested in the topic that they will voluntarily endeavor to supplement the lectures by an exhaustive course of outside reading. But they for the most part do not know either where to turn or how to begin. The seminarium here again supplies the defect. It is a valuable practice to begin each seminarium exercise with a half hour devoted to the review of current periodical and other scientific publications. If each member e. g. is assigned the periodical literature of some one country, not only will he be required to thoroughly familiarize himself with the current work in that language, but the whole seminarium will thus have presented to it piecemeal the very latest stage of scientific inquiry. If to the review of periodical literature be added a critical review of the newest books, the members will soon find that their range is being extended and that their appetite for further work is being whetted.

best way to learn to think correctly is to ascertain the flaws in the thoughts of others. Let each student be assigned the works of a definite author or class of authors, so that the whole field of the literature will be parceled out to the class. Let each member bring in his report, which should be both explanatory and critical; let this report be opened to a running fire of merciless criticism from the other members present; and let the professor in summing up the day's discussion point out wherein the advance, if any, has been made. If this discussion goes on from week to week, it may be assumed that the members will at all events have learned what pitfalls to avoid, what examples to follow. Such a training can not fail to produce its good results, if they consist in nothing more than the consciousness on the part of the students of their own shortcomings. In the seminarium the student for the first time feels himself a man; he occupies the place of the preceptor, he makes his own independent and constructive exposition; but he is spurred on to do his best work by the fear of pitiless criticism and good-natured ridicule. Each successive effort, we may be sure, will be better than the last; and if, after two or three years of such training, the student has not learned how to work, the fault lies not with the seminarium but with himself.

But not only does the student derive these advantages from the seminarium. The professor learns to unbend himself. In the first place the professor learns to unbend himself. In the lecture room he is the sole arbiter, the oracle. He lays down the law as he comprehends it. In the seminarium he is not the preceptor but the coworker. He puts himself down to the plane of his students. He criticises them, but must in turn expect to be criticised by them; and the more open and fearless the criticism the better for both. The professor is here the friend, the equal. He leads the discussion, to be sure; but if there are keen, able, bright students present, he may often learn instead of teach. I venture to say, without fear of contradiction, that every successful seminarium conductor has frequently received new ideas, novel suggestions, and helpful stimulus for his own particular work. It is this feeling of equality, of meeting on a common fighting ground that constitutes one of the most precious features of the seminarium. The professor, moreover, is brought into personal and friendly contact with the students — an utter impossibility in the lecture room. And while on the one hand the student must prize highly the opportunity of intimate converse with the professor, the professor on the other hand is enabled to gauge the merits of each, to give to each the needed word of counsel and to form a more definite opinion as a guide in passing on the candidate's examination and in recommending

him for future positions. Finally, the professor will make use of the seminarium in advancing his own particular work. His advanced students may be put on the details of the topic in which he is interested; they may be made to do the dirty work, so to speak, of original investigation. Their results can not, indeed, be implicitly relied on, but they will discover a fact here or a new idea there which, when carefully scrutinized, may be welded together into a composite whole. Every successful teacher will use his seminarium as a workshop. The handiwork of some may be defective but he will generally find something that can be turned to good use. A real seminarium will, in short, be scarcely less valuable to the professor than to the student.

While the advantages of the seminarium are thus plain, its risks and limitations are perhaps in some danger of being overlooked; and this danger is stronger in America than anywhere else.

We energetic Americans, when we get a good thing, are apt to overdo it. College athletics is a good thing; but when professionalism is introduced and educational interests are subordinated to athletic pursuits, it becomes a bad thing. A university is an honored institution, but when we dub every little second rate college or female seminary a university we are degrading the title. Higher degrees are in themselves a mark of distinction, but when our minor institutions multiply these high degrees and grant them for absurdly inadequate work, all degrees tend to lose their value and significance. So in the same way with the seminarium. The seminarium is a strictly university method. When an attempt is made to introduce these methods into the college, the academy and the high school, not only is it an abuse which will be utterly useless or worse than useless for the student, but one which will tend to cast discredit on the idea itself. The project of extending the benefits of the seminarium to other than university students is a well meaning, but utterly mistaken notion.

The reason is obvious: the seminarium is an adjunct to specialization, but specialization, as we have already indicated, is the work of the university, not of the college or high school. The great danger with higher education in America is that university ideas may be pushed down to manifestly unfit places. Even in the college, the elective system is a good thing only if its operation be carefully restricted. An absolutely free election which would enable a young man to spend all his time in college on a single topic involves a radical confusion of ideas. It would not be a college education, because it would not be a general education, the education befitting a gentleman. It would not be a university education, because the student is not old enough to

profit by the university methods. Absolutely free election in the sense indicated, would ruin the college and would also ruin the university, for when university professors are compelled to expound their ideas to immature boys, they are inevitably compelled to degrade their work to the level of their students. The real university course presupposes a certain general foundation; and if this foundation is lacking, the course loses half of its usefulness.

But if specialization is unfit work for the college and high school, to a still greater extent is the seminarium absolutely unsuitable for the college and high school. The seminarium connotes original research; college students have neither the maturity nor the training which are necessary prerequisites to independent thinking. The seminarium implies a certain equality between student and preceptor; the college boy is a manifestly absurd equal for his professor. The seminarium imports the use of the cooperative method; but how can students whose linguistic and literary equipment is necessarily of the slightest successfully employ the arts of comparison and criticism. The seminarium involves the employment of the most advanced pedagogical methods; but advanced methods can be used only with advanced students.

To attempt to employ university methods with immature youths would be even worse than to endanger the cause of university education by pushing it down into the college. The seminarium in the college would be useless and worse than useless. It would be useless because minds in a formative state can not create. That which is itself being created can not produce. Any attempt to construct something new would simply result in a parrot-like repetition of the old.

But the seminarium in the college would be worse than useless; it would be positively deleterious. It would injure the student, because it would lead him to understand that he is doing original work, when he is only rehashing the work of others. It would foster habits of superficiality and vainglory. To use an agronomic term, it would lead to extensive, not to intensive, culture. A diet of meat is a very excellent thing; but during certain years of our existence we are fed not on meat but on milk. The attempt prematurely to substitute solids for liquids is as perilous in the intellectual as in the physical development. The seminarium, moreover, would react on the morale, not only of the student, but also of the teacher. No self-respecting teacher who comprehends what a seminarium means could continue to employ these methods with immature boys without becoming conscious that he is untrue to his mission. He pretends to be doing what he knows can not be done. He is dissipating his energies with-

out accomplishing any positive result, except that of more or less conscious deception. And finally the seminarium in the college and high school is worse than useless, because it would tend to discredit the whole institution. The public would be led to believe that the high school seminarium was the genuine article; and the force of public opinion might in the long run degrade the university seminarium to the plane of its educational congener. The tendency of unbridled democracy in education, as in politics, is not to pull the average up to the level of the best; but to pull the best down to the level of the average.

Let us strive, therefore to live up to the ideal. Let us set our standard high and cling to it unflinchingly. If the seminarium is such a potent engine for good, let us develop its possibilities and give free scope to its opportunities. But let us beware of attempting to use it where it ought not to be used; let us beware of emasculating its energy and degrading its position. Let us beware of the misguided zeal which destroys what it endeavors to upbuild. Let us render to Cæsar what is Cæsar's, and let us recognize the danger of applying university methods to non-university conditions.

#### LIMITATIONS AND DANGERS

Prof. Ephraim Emerton, *Harvard University* — When asked by Mr Dewey what aspect of this question I should like to consider, I supposed that almost every other speaker would dwell on its great advantages, and therefore I replied that with his permission I would say something about its dangers and limitations; but I find in looking over the very excellent paper of Prof. Seligman that he has anticipated me on those points, as on almost all others. He has touched on almost every point that I think any one can think of in connection with this subject, so that I can hardly do more than perhaps to emphasize a little more than he has done one or two of these points. In the first place, let me remind you that this seminary method is a very new thing in this country. I myself am one of the patriarchs of this system. I began to teach at Cambridge 16 years ago. At that time there had only been a slight attempt at this sort of thing there under direction of that eminent historian, Prof. Henry Adams; but this had been a spasmodic attempt, and when Prof. Adams left the college it was dropped. I had just come myself from the seminar in Germany, and it seemed to me the most natural thing in the world to get together two or three or half a dozen of the brightest men and take them a little farther into the machinery of historic study (for that was the topic I was dealing with) than I could well carry the

rest. We began in this way, without any organization. I asked the young men to come to my house, and we read there together some of the original sources for the period we were studying, and that in its essence is the seminarium as it has been developed, only that now we have it in more elaborate shape. Two years ago I was in Leipzig visiting the scene of my student life, and under the guidance of one of the professors was looking over the rooms of one of the seminaries there. I was surprised to find in conversation with him that the head of educational matters in Saxony, the minister of public instruction, did not believe in the seminaries. He opposed them, but he could not prevent the appropriation of the necessary money for their support. I inquired naturally what the reasons were, why such a man occupying the leading position of the country opposed what I had supposed was admitted to be the best agent in developing modern study, and the answer that was given me was very suggestive. It was this : The minister of public instruction believes that the seminar tends to foster mediocrity; that it is providing a method by which a man of very moderate parts indeed may be carried along to a certain kind of achievement which will seem very great to him but which will be a very much smaller thing than he thinks it is. He will be led into a kind of readiness which really is not based on profound learning or on great ability. The result will be the production of a lot of over-trained men of moderate parts, and also the production of literary results which will be right in form, will be the result of a system, will look well on paper, but they will be lacking in the essential spirit of scholarship. To what degree this view of the case is right and to what degree it is wrong is now being tested all over the world. It is too early yet for us to say what the results are going to be, and yet I think that none of us who are familiar with the product of German scholarship to-day, after nearly a generation of the seminary work in that line of study in Germany, can fail to see that already there are indications that this man was right; that there is over-production, that it is frequently of a very moderate value indeed, that it is a production of a great mass of specialists who are trained in so narrow a line that their special learning does not have the effect that it ought to have. This suggests of course one of the great dangers, one of the limitations which ought to be laid on this study. It should be if possible confined to men of exceptional ability and also to men of exceptional training. I am not saying in this that the method is not a good method from the beginning. I think it is. I think the student of history, of philosophy, of economics, or any subject, is the better if he is taught something about the methods of his sci-



ence from the beginning. If, for instance, the student of history is made to see from the beginning that it is not all in his book, that the book is based on other books, and that those are based on original materials; and if he is from time to time shown specimens of these original materials, so that a too credulous attitude will be lessened as much as possible, that is a good thing, but that is not the seminar in the sense in which Prof. Seligman has accurately defined it. In that sense it should be the work of men who have had a large education in their subject beforehand, who have been trained in the accessory subjects necessary to success; and it should come, therefore, naturally toward the close of their studies. The danger is that the kind of facility which a man acquires by this training shall come to pass for scholarship, when in reality it represents only one of the many elements which go to make up scholarship. I think we should all agree probably that the course of education can be rationally divided into three parts: the information, the understanding of what one learns, and the process of research. These three things go to make up the process of education in general, and they correspond to the three stages of the individual's development, but they do not correspond exactly. A young student may be made to understand as well as to acquire, and he may have, as I have already said, a glimpse of the process of research, so the student in his second stage must still keep on learning while he is chiefly understanding, but he may have a larger glimpse in his research. In the third stage research should form a very important part of his training, and that research it is the object of the seminar to give. These are the points which seem to me useful to emphasize in Prof. Seligman's paper. As to criticism, I have none to offer.

#### ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS

Pres. J. G. Schurman — Prof. Seligman and Prof. Emerton have said about all there is to say regarding the advantages and the dangers and limitations of the seminary system. I do not know that I can do better than to describe how I use the system at Cornell, and yet before doing so I venture even to repeat something that these gentlemen have already said in order that my own general views on the subject may be made clear.

It seems to me we may describe the business of learning as consisting first of all in assimilating the knowledge which the race and the teachers of each successive generation have in their keeping. The main business, if not the exclusive business, in the primary and secondary schools is just this work of assimilation. So far as that



describes correctly the work of the schools, just so far is the seminar method inapplicable to them. Furthermore, it seems to me that when you pass from the schools to the college, pretty much the same statement may be made for the college. I mean that the old type of New England college aimed to impart knowledge to the student and to develop in him a certain kind of culture mainly by offering to him materials of one sort or another on which his mind reacted so that he made them his own; he assimilated them, and yet in making them his own he occupied a more or less independent attitude in regard to them. It is only in so far as this independence of attitude in regard to the materials offered to the student is present that the conditions are attained for the successful application of the seminar method. I feel therefore that in this country the danger has been to abuse this method. I know certain institutions where there has been set before students without the necessary antecedent knowledge and culture on their part the claim of adding some infinitesimal portion to the stock of human knowledge. That may perhaps be a good thing for human knowledge, but it is a bad thing for the culture of the student; and because that mistake has been made so frequently amongst ourselves, I felt when the invitation was given me to speak here that a note of warning on the dangers and limitations of this method was necessary. I am confirmed in that when I see that the speakers before me have also found it necessary. If, however, we get the right material, there can be no possible doubt about the enormous advantages of the seminar method. It is a highly creditable thing to us in America that we are so far ahead of the English and Scotch universities in our appropriation and use of the seminar method. The proper materials, the proper kind of students on which to work, seem to me to be either seniors in our colleges who have been for two years at least specializing on some subject, or else, perhaps still better, graduate students of one, two or even three years standing. I am convinced from my own observations at Cornell—and I think we have on an average as good graduate students as can be found in the country—that not all graduate students of the first year standing are proper material on which to exercise the seminar method. Let me describe precisely the kind of work I have been doing in my seminary. I have had, as professor of philosophy, a seminary at one time in metaphysics and at another time in ethics, and even perhaps in the history of philosophy, although not a systematic one on that subject. This year I had a seminary in ethics. First of all we had a seminary room set apart for the use of the students in that department. We have at

Cornell University (I am not advertising the university, I am simply describing the facts) in our new library building, seven rooms set apart for the exclusive use of graduate students, in what we may call the literary, linguistic, historic and philosophic departments of the university. We have one seminary room for graduate students in philosophy, another for graduate students in the ancient classical languages, another for those in French and German, still another for those in English, another for students in economics and politics. Each of these rooms is fitted up with large tables and chairs, each student having assigned to him a seat at the table and a drawer, the key of which he has in his possession. Along the wall of the room are pictures, and there are books specially reserved for seminary students. These books are over and above those which the library has in its stacks or on its general reference shelves. They are selected with special reference to the needs of graduate students; then we get any costly books which the library is not disposed to purchase. In that event library trustees make an appropriation for that purpose. That is the material aspect of the case. Our students have these unusual, and I may say in regard to our new library building, these luxurious facilities. I had this year four men. One of them was a Cornell graduate of two years standing; another was a graduate of Vermont University who had spent two years at Clark University as a scholar or fellow in the graduate work; the third was a graduate of Brown University who after teaching for two or three years had spent two years in Germany specializing in philosophy and had come back to us to finish his course; the fourth was a graduate of Cincinnati University who had spent four years in Germany specializing in philosophy, and finally taking his doctor's degree in the University of Heidelberg. These four gentlemen met me once a week in the seminary room, where we would sit around the table. Each one of them was working up some particular chapter of a treatise in ethics. I did not tell them so, but I do not mind confessing to this Convocation, that I had it in mind to write a book on ethics, and that it would be a great gain to me, and I knew it would be advantageous to the students if I could select for each one of them, or get them to select for themselves, a subject which I might afterward utilize as a chapter in my book. One of the students took for his subject "The notion of law in ethics and morals"; another one took for his subject "Conscience"; the third one selected "The influence of determinism on our minor moral conceptions," and the fourth was concerned specially with "The notion of justice in its applications both to ethics and civics." We met from week to week, two hours at a

session. At the first meeting the subjects were discussed and I made various suggestions. The individual students indicated what their preferences were, and before the second meeting they had come pretty thoroughly to the conclusion what subject each should select. Thereupon the work was begun. I gave a list of books to each student, indicating chapters which would be helpful to him in the study of the subject. These books were all in the seminary library, and if they were not there I was able with the funds at my disposal to have them put there. The work went on from week to week in this way.

At the next meeting I asked Mr. A. what work he had been doing since the last meeting. He said he had read such a book. He then, for he had his notes before him, gave a brief digest of the contents of that book. Then he gave his opinion of its value. He was interrogated by other students and by myself, and perhaps half of the whole two hours assigned to the meeting might have been taken up by the report and the discussion on the report offered by this single member of the class. At the next meeting somewhat the same process was performed with another student of the class, till the entire ground had been covered. When the year was about half gone, or somewhat more, each of them was preparing a thesis on the subject assigned, and as we then met from week to week we heard what the general divisions were, and as one part of the thesis followed another we learned what attitude the writer took in relation to the various authorities whom he had consulted. That attitude again was discussed by me and by other members of the class, and without of course endeavoring to thrust my views on the writer I endeavored wherever possible to point out weaknesses in his arguments or to suggest improvements; and so the work went on through the entire year.

Now, Mr. Chairman, I am convinced that with students of that maturity the seminar method is the only method of teaching that is worth anything at all. For such men text-book work, lecturing, recitations and quizzes are things of the past. They are fit to be coworkers and fellow laborers with the professors, and I regarded it as my duty simply to play the part of an older brother, play the part of senior fellow worker and offer suggestions, and to indicate to them wherever I could how I thought the work ought to be done. When you introduce that method into the college, and, still worse, into the high schools, it seems to me that you overlook the great fact that there is first of all the blade, then the ear, then the corn in the ear. It is only for those of this latter type that the seminar method is suited.

## SEMINAR METHOD IN UNDERGRADUATE WORK

Chanc. James H. Canfield, *University of Nebraska* — I feel that it is a very great courtesy indeed that one so far out of the jurisdiction of this Convocation should be asked to speak at all or should be granted even a moment of your time. If I wander so far as to wonder whether we may not thus far be disputing about words; if I dare do that in view of the gentlemen who have preceded me, and their eminence in the educational field, you will be kind enough to lay it to the fact that I have come 1500 miles without breakfast, and not attribute it to any laziness on my part, but to a temporary weakness. The paper reads, "Not the ideal seminar, but the seminar method and its advantages and disadvantages." I take it that we are substantially agreed with regard to the seminar method. If there is any disagreement I have failed to hear it here, and I failed to catch any note of it in my contact with the educational world in the last 10 years. The question, it seems to me, is, under what conditions can the seminar method be wisely and profitably employed, and I answer that very briefly by saying, that depends. That may seem very simple indeed. It depends because we wish to know what you want by education. If you are after culture, that is one thing; if you are after power, that is another thing; and I take it that in this country at least we are dealing with the United States and with the conditions of the United States and separate states, the conditions of American society, and that what we need is power. I do not mean to say that we do not need culture or erudition, but that the great thing that we do need is power. How will you best secure power along the line of educational life? It seems to me that one idea taken first hand by a young man is worth 40 at least taken second hand. If you can get him down to the point of forming one idea for himself, with a conclusion drawn with considerable accuracy, you have strength there that you can not otherwise gain under any circumstances. I grant all that has been said in regard to the work in Germany and in post-graduate work in this country, and yet I come back again to the proposition which I advanced at first, that it seems to me that it depends. This is not Germany, nor are we dealing with German young men. This is the United States and it is 1892, and the problem that lies before us is, what are we going to do in the United States in 1892? If the conditions are the same as in Germany, if the best thing for education in Germany is the best thing for education in the United States, very well; but if the conditions here are not as they are in Germany, if the characteristics of American society are not as they

session. At the first meeting the subjects were discussed and I made various suggestions. The individual students indicated what their preferences were, and before the second meeting they had come pretty thoroughly to the conclusion what subject each should select. Thereupon the work was begun. I gave a list of books to each student, indicating chapters which would be helpful to him in the study of the subject. These books were all in the seminary library, and if they were not there I was able with the funds at my disposal to have them put there. The work went on from week to week in this way.

At the next meeting I asked Mr A. what work he had been doing since the last meeting. He said he had read such a book. He then, for he had his notes before him, gave a brief digest of the contents of that book. Then he gave his opinion of its value. He was interrogated by other students and by myself, and perhaps half of the whole two hours assigned to the meeting might have been taken up by the report and the discussion on the report offered by this single member of the class. At the next meeting somewhat the same process was performed with another student of the class, till the entire ground had been covered. When the year was about half gone, or somewhat more, each of them was preparing a thesis on the subject assigned, and as we then met from week to week we heard what the general divisions were, and as one part of the thesis followed another we learned what attitude the writer took in relation to the various authorities whom he had consulted. That attitude again was discussed by me and by other members of the class, and without of course endeavoring to thrust my views on the writer I endeavored wherever possible to point out weaknesses in his arguments or to suggest improvements; and so the work went on through the entire year.

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are in Germany, or if the characteristics of the society of a given state are not the characteristics of another state, then what we need is not what is done in Germany or what is done in Massachusetts or New York, nor what is done in Pennsylvania, but what can best be done with the material we have in hand to secure the best results. Every one here who has spoken thus far has emphasized that there must be maturity on the part of the student. That depends again on what you mean by maturity. There are mature students and maturer students. The age can not tell, nor the fact that you draw a line and say here is a man in the senior class. Where? Under what conditions? The seniors in one college may be in advance of seniors in another. Prof. Seligman says, the method may not be of value in a college, but it is in a university. Take for instance the average western university, specially the average western state university, such as the University of Nebraska, which I have the honor to represent: The average age in that university is about 19 $\frac{4}{10}$  and that includes those who are carrying some of the lower courses and preparatory courses, which are still kept in connection with the industrial college. Of those who are present one third of them are self-supporting, one half are more or less self-supporting, and of all that are present eight tenths of them have come there after an actual conflict with their parents. It was a struggle first to secure the means by which to come, and second to secure permission to come. Those conditions make the class of students entirely different from the class in the average eastern college, such a college, for instance, as I attended long ago, where nearly every single student was sent by his parents or guardian. One young man who *comes* is worth 20 of those who are *sent*. When you come to talk about seminar methods it is the same way. If we have pupils who come and who are not sent, then we can readily trust them with the seminar method. The seminar method is a most excellent method, providing the maturity of the student is fit to acquire it. I think it must be determined by the instructor. I was a little surprised when I heard Prof. Seligman press so sharply on the maturity of the student. I wonder that he did not say something about the maturity of the instructor. An oracle is apt to be rather dry. I remember when I was an oracle; I found my students constantly drifting away from me. So I came down from my high desk and put a long table in the middle of the room and put the students about it and we called it the council table. I remember the thrill of pride felt by a young man when he walked in one day and floored me on a proposition I had made a few days before. I thought then I had begun to make men. This is the duty of every institution



to-day, whether you call it a college or a university. I remember visiting a college — called a university — about three years ago, and if my memory serves me rightly I heard the same lecture on American constitutional history that I heard in 1867. Such a man as that can not carry the seminar method, and he will oppose it because it will drive him out of existence. Find a man who is willing to stand close to his students, who will fraternize with his students, who will take hold of student life, who will put "go" into it, and I am not afraid to trust him to put in the seminar method wherever in his judgment it may be employed. If you have the proper instructor, and leave it with him, there will be no difficulty. I am in favor of the method, because it seems to me it is peculiarly the method of freedom, and freedom means light and life.

### General discussion

Pres. E. Benjamin Andrews, *Brown University* — I agree with every word that has been said on both sides of the question. I think it would be a pity to restrict to any particular year or any particular class of students that method which may, with the customary looseness of speech, be called the seminar method. It seems to me the last speaker was thoroughly right; that whether the seminar method is to be made a success or not depends on the teacher and on the spirit in which he introduces and administers that system. If we only have a powerful teacher who is determined to produce results, that method can be introduced at an early stage.

With reference to one of the points that has been made, it seems to me a further word of definition would be of some advantage. We are talking about the seminar method. A great many different sub-methods are called by that name, and I have not yet heard with exactness any method described to which the term seminar could be applied. I have had under my eye three different methods, all of which were called by the men who conducted them manifestations of the seminar method. I have seen this method tried with fairly good results: The instructor brings together a considerable number of men engaged in similar work and he gives each one of those men his particular task. The time that they spend in the seminary is spent in reading the discourses or essays of these young men. Almost all the time is devoted to that and almost no time to criticism. I suppose the students and possibly the professor get some good out of that, though it seems to me something else might be much more successful and its possibility might be very much broader. I have seen in the study of history a considerable class gathered together, at one

end of which the instructor himself sat. I have seen them read over the original, one reading half a page and then another and another, the instructor or any one else asking questions at the end of each exercise. That I think is a very useful method, but in order to make a high success it requires a considerable maturity. There is still a different method: Suppose you gather together your pupils and assign each one a subject for his own essay, but require that each one shall keep himself posted on a certain portion of the lecture, and that he report not only on his particular subject, but also on the subject given to the others. That method is usable with the members of senior classes of almost all the best educational institutions of this country, and it is an advantage that it can be followed in such a way as to be entertaining and extraordinarily profitable not only to those in the senior class, but also to others. If the method were to be applied universally in that way we should get rid of one objection which has been advanced against it this afternoon, viz., the danger of its making men narrow. There is no danger of that method making men narrow, providing it is the mental cultivation of the men you have in mind rather than a work of specific research. There is danger of beginning research too soon, but there is no danger of beginning the work of mental development too soon. We lecture relatively too much. If half the time which is now spent in our American colleges and universities (I refer to the graduate departments) in communicating information should be spent at the work of developing the the mind, the Socratic plan, the plan of give and take, then minds would be developed much more rapidly than now, and the power to which the last speaker has referred would be forthcoming in immensely greater relays than it is at the present time.

Prof. George Stuart Fullerton, *University of Pennsylvania* — I am extremely glad that the discussion has taken the turn which it has ; i. e., the question of certain conditions or limitations peculiar to us which may make the seminar method useful to us, whereas in itself it might be quite useless to us, though very useful in a certain form in another place. We all know that it is very much easier for students in one subject to do original work in a certain stage of their progress than in another subject. We know a man may do a great deal of work in psychology without going very far in the study of psychology, but when he comes, for instance, to philosophy and some of the questions underlying ethics I ask of what value is the work or paper written by a student who has just left college and taken up his graduate studies at one of our universities in the east.

The four men whom Pres. Schurman described appear to have been exceptional cases. Take such men in philosophy or in ethics. Does it seem that the best way to carry on their work and make them active in the work is to set them at writing papers on different subjects and then reading them? Do you think that the best work will be done if any large proportion of the seminar is taken up in the reading of a paper by one of the students, which will probably not be a good paper? It is a very important question indeed, and though it is essential that the student should be accurate from the beginning, it seems to me that the best method is not that of preparing papers, except when the class is very small and when the students are very advanced students. The best method which has suggested itself to me from my own experience is a method which will map out the work of the year: have all the students interested in about the same range of topics, and have all of them sufficiently prepared on these topics to discuss them as they come up. Let the paper be as brief as possible and let the discussion be the important thing. In Germany after a man gets through his graduate course what does he do? He prepares a single course of lectures and he has but one thing to do. Ordinarily he wants a college position. In the American college there is a multitude of things he has to teach and any training which will teach him to know only one thing well I would regard as insufficient training. He must be carried over more than one field in a different way from that in vogue in Germany. I have known men in Germany who have spent their course in the preparation of a single topic.

If a seminar means doing original work by the student or professor, it certainly seems out of place among undergraduate students; but if, on the other hand, we realize that the seminar method means first the activity of the student, and second the close personal relation of student and teacher, we may see there is no necessary limit to the time at which the work may be begun. And I may say that in the subjects in which I am interested, psychology and philosophy, I do not consider that that which can be gained by a student who simply learns what is given him and does not become active from the start, has any value whatever. You can teach psychology to a student as you teach him facts in history; he may learn details about the lives of the philosophers and that is all. He has from the beginning to learn to think for himself, and what we want to do is by direct contact of professor and student to bring about such a possibility. In the seminary, where the students will meet the professor, where they feel that they are as good as he, and where they may ask him questions and contradict him at any time, they will certainly ask him questions and go on discussing the sub-

ject with him in a way that they would not follow in the lecture room. In the seminary I hope you will not have more than 10 or 12 at the most. Why should not this be a seminarium. The students are not preparing public work, but they are learning to think, and in these lines a man who has learned to think and to criticise has but little to do farther than learn to put his ideas on paper and to receive criticism in printed instead of oral form.

1 The seminar as it has been described I do not think applicable to all studies with equal success.

2 Where the seminar is taken in its broadest sense, as the close relationship of student and teacher with a view to making the student active so far as possible, even more so than the teacher, then there seems no reason why it should not begin lower down in the college course. For a number of years I have conducted myself a seminary in philosophy and psychology with undergraduate students, and I have found that those men who met with me in a friendly way nearly always became much more interested in the subject than they could have been by mere class room instruction; that they read for themselves as directed, and that some of them were always inclined to go on to graduate work in this subject, whereas I doubt whether they would have felt this inclination under other circumstances. For this reason I should be sorry to see either this or something which is enough like it to take its place with undergraduate students crowded out from our undergraduate course.

Prof. Francis H. Stoddard — The seminar, in essence, is the method of exploration of a wilderness with intent to trace a path to a promised land, guided by a pillar of fire by day and of cloud by night in the shape of a provisional theory. The seminary method has a special fitness for America though its use in education has come to us from Germany, for by it Columbus discovered America. He was conducting a seminary division in geography, guided by a provisional theory, when he sighted the West Indies. By this same inductive method Newton and Darwin did their work, and by some application of this method every educational advance has been gained. I shall not, therefore, think it necessary to urge the use of this method in post-graduate work, it has already conquered its position.

On the other hand, there is little use in urging the employment of the same method in preparatory or academic work. The seminary method demands that a certain stage in training shall have been reached, before quick and certain results in investigational work can

for deductive work, of a set of canons of English criticism adapted for deductive work. To abandon all these war supplies would be wasteful, to depart from the habit of use of them in a single particular is difficult. The simple change of a classroom in which are 20 low benches for the students and one high desk for a teacher, to one in which are 20 desks for the students and one low bench for the instructor, is a change not easy to bring about. It is hard to kick against time-honored goads.

In the second place the seminary method is expensive. There is a loss at both ends. It can serve fewer students and it demands vastly more apparatus. For the seminary are needed space, scope and tools. In the English literature laboratory is required an equipment as extensive as in the chemical laboratory, and it is as useless to attempt to study literature inductively with a single text as to teach physics with a single piece of apparatus. It costs time and money to work with the seminary method, and the labor of the instructor is more than doubled.

In the third place the way of the inductive worker is hard because the immediate reward is small. The original leader seldom reaches the promised land; the explorer, the inventor, rarely possess that which they bring to value. The seminary method gives discipline, gives power, it seldom gives quick, showy examinations or commencement-day results.

But he that loseth his life shall save it; and the worker who draweth circles premature, heedless of far gain, is less than wise. In spite of, and recognizing its difficulties, I urge the employment of the seminary method, even in the studies known as the humanities, even in the under-graduate years. Give one or two courses a year, I beg, if no more. I urge it in the interest of the student, the professor and the profession. In the interest of the professor I demand it, to compel him to face the newer problems and to give him opportunity to rank his work as one of the living forces of the day. I urge it in the interest of the student because the seminary method tends to cultivate in him a conservative independence of mind. The classical student in his senior year is not so independent a thinker as his scientific brother. For him, independence of mind is complete when one defends or opposes. To go against some time-honored thesis of ethics, criticism, or philosophy, or, to defend it—that is independence of mind to him. Fealty to or fierce defiance to a past proposition—that is mental courage. The larger thought-habit which ventures forth into unmapped regions of thought, and patiently, reverently, studies facts and relations, neither in bondage to, nor in

revolt against, some earlier proposition, is the thought-habit which is of special promise. It is this thought-habit which is specially fostered by the seminary method.

In spite then of the difficulties, I urge a larger use of this method, even in the classical and literary courses, and the undergraduate years. There is such use now, notably in one or two instances at Cornell and at my own University. I earnestly urge its more general employment.

Willis Boughton, *University of Pennsylvania* — It was my fortune or my misfortune to graduate from an institution where the seminary method was employed in the undergraduate department, mostly with the advanced students. I know just what a stimulus it is to the student to be privileged to use that method or to study under that method. It is unnecessary for me to repeat what has been said. We find that it can be employed in the undergraduate department and employed to advantage. I can perhaps give some of my own experience in that line which simply emphasizes what has already been said. I have taught principally in what is known as the small college. I believe the small college has a mission, that it is doing good work, and that it is the college. I have taught on the other side of the Alleghenies, and, as one speaker has said, it makes a difference where you are teaching, what institution you are teaching in. Where I was teaching it was not at all unusual to have small classes of students who when they come to college are voters, of students who have had to earn the money and pay their way and know what they come to college for. My work has been in the line of rhetoric. I had a recitation room and a private room. I gathered first all the rhetorics I could find on my shelves, then gathered the articles that had been written by prominent educators on the different departments of rhetoric. For two hours before recitation, or a longer time if necessary, I permitted the students to come to the private room and consult the books on a given topic. All ideas were compared. The result was stimulating, and I never found rhetoric a dry subject to teach in that way. The past year I had the subject of rhetoric in a university where a great many of the students are *sent*. Those students are younger. In a week's time I found that I could not employ even that method to advantage. I gave references to books; the students would not go to the library to consult the books. The result was that I adopted the laboratory method, compelling them to use a certain number of books. I find in my experience that it is a stimulus to the student in almost all undergraduate departments.



## HIGHER EXAMINATIONS

*The proper academic recognition of results of higher examinations conducted by the University.*

Pres. James M. Taylor presented the following minority report and said that it seemed best to the minority of the committee present, there being no majority, to make this statement in order to throw the matter open for further discussion by the Convocation.

### MINORITY REPORT OF COMMITTEE REPRESENTING COLLEGES

Your committee has held one meeting during the year, and has discussed with the regents the question submitted to it. Another meeting for the purpose of formulating its recommendations was to be held at this time, but the call of the chairman elsewhere, and the absence of other members, leave a minority of the committee without right to report for all.

The view that examinations for the higher degrees should be offered by the regents, with proper precautions and standards suggested by the colleges, has found some favor, but we think that we speak for the majority when we say that the opinion is also strongly held in the committee that the regents should confine themselves to the issue of certificates for work done, and that the granting of degrees to those who have not had the actual training of the college classroom is a misuse, and an encouragement of a false view of the place of examinations in our educational system

(Signed) JAMES M. TAYLOR  
H. E. WEBSTER

JULY 6, 1892

*Members of the committee present*

### General discussion

Prin. Solomon Sias — It has been truly said that the college makes students and that the university takes those students in their special work, and with superior facilities allows them to carry it on so that the university works with the specialists. The academies and academic departments of our union schools are the colleges and the universities of the people. At least not one in 10 of those that come to our academies ever go to college. They have neither the time nor the means with which to go. They are the children of our farmers, of our working people, of our store keepers, and they are needed at home to carry on the work there. If fortunately their parents can gather together enough to put one of the children through college it seems to them a hardship to those who are obliged to be left at home, and therefore boys or girls are kept out



of the higher academic or collegiate work; and yet they are very ambitious. They are just as eager for knowledge as any one that ever followed a special course in a university. Their environment is such that they have been unable to gratify their mental desires. Our regents have begun a good work; let them not neglect the foundation. They did a good thing when they said that they would carry something higher than the mere preliminary studies, giving their pass cards, certificates and diplomas to those that pursued these studies. You may go into our humble farm homes and you will find in the parlors, in the best frame that can be had, a regents' junior, 30, 40 or 50 count certificate, or an academic diploma. The children have tasted of these waters and they wish to drink still more freely of them. Let the regents go on in their good work and give them the higher collegiate studies. Let them say to us teachers in the secondary schools and in the academies of the state, "Say to your young men and young women, come to school when you can; during a few of those winter months when you are needed so much at home carry on your studies by the fireside, but be sure to come back to our January, March and June examinations and pass if you can in those subjects and the regents will give you a passcard; and later they will give you a certificate, and if you can get high enough they will give you some kind of a degree." It will give a stimulus to education all through our rural districts that to-day it can not and yet is anxious to feel. We will say to these young men, and they will gladly avail themselves of the privilege, "You may have your higher education, if you can not go to college." You will find these children in the evening not going to the village or to the store, the hotel or saloon, but staying at home and studying, working for something higher and nobler; not becoming dissatisfied with farm work, but feeling that the work on the farm, in the workshop or behind the counter is helping them on and up, is giving them something to do, and in the meantime they can be gaining what they are mentally craving.

Prin. George H. Ottoway — I can begin as many others have by saying I agree with pretty nearly all that has been said. I think we shall have more light on this important question if we ask two or three questions and think out a proper answer to those questions, and the first one I would suggest is this: is higher work such as is contemplated by the question, carried on outside of college and university halls, a thing to be desired? It seems to me there is but one answer. The next question that suggests itself to me is, are special

incentives to that kind of work necessary? And another question is, should a great institution having the powers and the opportunities held by the University of the State of New York hold out every inducement in its power for that kind of work? I say the answer to the first question seems to me to be perfectly clear. The answer to the second question is perhaps equally clear. It suggests to me a question which one of our Amherst professors is reported to have been asked by a young man from Boston. It was something like this: "Can a man circumstanced as I am, surrounded by the unfathomable and the unthinkable, overhung by the unscalable, and threatened with the inevitable, keep himself in a given course, or is he likely at certain points to be drawn aside?" It does not require a sage to answer the question, if you can at once get the drift of it. We all know that there is a great temptation to be drawn aside from almost any pursuit, specially if it is in any way connected with practical affairs. There is no line of work in which there are so many temptations in this line as higher study outside of the college or university. No matter how strong the desire for knowledge may be, no matter how good the habits of study with which the individual may have left regular courses of study, it is a very difficult matter for him to confine himself to a definite line of work. But you say he is a student and he will always be a student. Very true probably, but I think your experience will tell you that he will not study regularly in given lines unless he has a definite aim in view, or unless some incentives are offered. It seems to me that the more that can be held out legitimately in the line of incentive the better. I should not like to be held to advocate the granting of degrees in an unlimited way, but the question as it is before this University is a very broad and general one. Nobody has advocated the giving of a bachelor's degree on examination to students not regularly in attendance at college or university. You may interpret the question to mean, shall the master's degree and the doctor's degree be given for non-resident work to those students who have won the bachelor's degree for resident work? With that broad question, and with a thorough consideration of all the objections that can be raised, and with care in the decision of just what shall be done in this line, I think there is a very valuable work before this great University.

Bishop Doane — I have been a regent for less than a year; I have been a teacher for more than 40 years, and I think if I am imbued with anything, it is with an infinite sense of the great advantage of resident work in college atmosphere, of collegiate life and

of the intercourse among graduates and the older and wiser men. In the first place, I want to say about this question of conferring degrees, I was completely and absolutely misunderstood last night if I committed the regents to any decision in regard to this matter of conferring degrees. The regents move slowly, and I am perfectly certain that any one who will take the trouble to read the report of the committee to the regents will see that they are waiting for counsel and cooperation from the men whom they consider their fellow workers in this great cause of education, the presidents of colleges, heads of universities and principals of academies. While I am the youngest of the board of regents I know enough of their spirit in this matter to say that you need not have the slightest anxiety of any hasty action on the part of the board of regents in this regard. Yielding to no man in my estimate of the value of college residence, I believe that the time has come when there should be a recognition of non-residence. It must be recognized for more reasons than one. I believe that the University of the State of New York in common with every other teaching institution is concerned with making a literary degree mean something. It can only be made to mean something when it represents something, and when it simply represents academic residence it does not mean much; but when it is connected with examinations, examinations absolutely impersonal, on papers prepared outside of the place of teaching, and by people who are not in the least degree connected with the teaching, I think it may come to mean a great deal. It is a well known fact that out of the 74 institutions of the state of New York which confer degrees to-day, a good many of them, not perhaps the most reputable, are beginning to confer degrees on non-residents. I honestly believe that the University of the State of New York, with the counsel, confidence, consent and cooperation of the universities and colleges in the state of New York, is ready to say that the standard of examinations should be higher than is required by any institution in this state or country; and that if they confer degrees in arts, in medicine, in philosophy or in law on men who have never had the advantage of residing in college, that they will do a good thing, that they will elevate and dignify the degree. I should be glad to feel that B. A., M. A. or D. D. did not mean what they now do in some instances. If this University ever confers degrees let it be done with the (N. Y.) after it, in order to show that the man is not a graduate of Cornell, of Columbia, but that he has passed certain examinations required by the University of the State of New York, simply because he has been able to attain a position of learning which is worthy of a degree.

Rev. Clarence A. Walworth, *Albany* — I have listened with very great pleasure this morning and this afternoon to each speaker, and it seems to me the remarks of each bring up to my mind the same general conclusion. It makes me proud to be here in the midst of the regents of the University and the gentlemen who here make this Convocation. I most heartily wish that those who have spoken of abolishing the University could be here and listen to the various remarks which have been made on these questions. For that reason I wish that this Convocation could meet when the members of the legislature could be here and listen to the words of experience which come from every part of the state, words laden with actual experience, rare wisdom and profound thought.

There is a second thought which has come up. How strange that as each man gives his sentiments he speaks the truth, and we all feel that he is speaking the truth. He knows whereof he speaks. He speaks from experience. He has taken in all surroundings, at least all his own surroundings, and has drawn ripe judgments. It is impossible to be present at a place like this without learning wisdom. And yet after all, is it not strange that we should differ on the great point which is the practical point to be arrived at, when it comes to the question of what is to be done? It is a rare thing in an assembly like this to see that men are not confronting each other. There is no need for this. You have contrary minds in the practical results to be arrived at, and yet you all speak wisdom. To my mind it proves just one thing, that with all our school and college education in the state of New York there may be too much systematizing. Is it not possible that each man who comes from some special locality, and comes knowing what he has to say and well knowing what he wishes, may possibly have in mind his own locality, the particular class of institutions to which he belongs and each man wants his own special results. This is the way to gather wisdom, but what we want when a Convocation like this comes together is general results which will apply to the whole state, the whole population. Wisdom must not be confined to one locality, nor to one class, nor to one system.

Regent T. Guilford Smith — I would like to state in a very few words what actually took place at the joint meeting of a committee of the regents and a committee of the college presidents which has been alluded to by Pres. Taylor of Vassar this afternoon. I had the good fortune to be present at that conference, and I would like to state most emphatically that there was only one conclusion arrived at, and that conclusion was formulated in about these words : That the

regents would do only one thing in reference to the conferring of degrees on non-resident students, viz., that they would not take any action whatever which did not meet with the hearty approval of the college presidents of the institutions which constitute a part of the University. I think this statement is due to the regents themselves, and I have no doubt if Pres. Taylor is present he will recall that that is the only conclusion that they arrived at: that degrees would only be conferred in harmony with the views of the colleges represented in the University. You may rest assured whatever is done in the future will be done in entire harmony with every institution which constitutes a part of the University.

Pres. J. G. Schurman — In the first place I think there is not so much disagreement in the ends aimed at, and even in the means that should be employed, as might seem at first sight. For instance, I think all the members of this Convocation are agreed that it is desirable to do what we can for the promotion of lower and higher education among those classes of the community who have not the opportunity of attending our colleges and universities or even our high schools; and I for one would hail with the heartiest satisfaction any and every effort that would bring these imperishable blessings of education to the door of every farmer's and every mechanic's son and daughter in this Empire state; and I am sure that the opinion which I express is not peculiar to me but is shared by other members of the Convocation.

In the second place I think we are all agreed that any proper incentive which would stimulate the sons and daughters of the citizens of the state of New York should be held out to them. What kind of incentive should be used is a matter on which there may be a legitimate difference of opinion. I gravely doubt—and I speak for myself only, and with such limited experience as I have—whether the granting of those degrees which have hitherto been reserved for the exclusive use of our universities would be any great incentive. I think perhaps the board of regents in their wisdom might devise other incentives which would be more efficient, and if I were allowed to make a suggestion I would venture to say that scholarships, of a trifling cost even, would be much more effective in producing the ends aimed at than the granting of the degrees of M. A., or B. A., or even the higher degrees.

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tions which do not prevail on this continent. About the year 1830 dissenters were excluded from the English universities. There was no way by which they could get degrees or higher education, and the government instituted a new university called the University of London, which was not an examining body, but a teaching body, with power to grant degrees. Owing to the heterogeneous elements which combined to give life to the new enterprise, it was found impossible to work effectively. There were dissenters, and on the other hand there were moderates — if I may be allowed to coin a term — in the established church. These elements could not work together, and the government recognizing the impossibility of carrying on the institution as originally projected, changed its form and made the University of London an examining body and resolved the teaching forces into two branches: one since known as King's College located on the Strand under control of the church of England, and the other, University College, on Gower street, London, which has been the headquarters of the liberals and radicals in Great Britain. For some time the University of London went on as an examining body for the students of these two colleges. In the course of time other institutions grew up in England and Scotland, like the college at Liverpool and Nottingham, and as one after another grew up the London University undertook to examine their students and grant degrees. One further step in the evolution was almost inevitable. It was argued that if a man prepares himself why should he not have the benefit of his preparation, and in the course of time there were admitted to the University of London those who had not attended any institution. They form a small fraction, perhaps one tenth of all who came up for the degrees. It is interesting to note that after having passed through these various stages of evolution there is now a proposal to abolish London University as an examining institution and make it what the University of Berlin is, a great teaching and examining university for the metropolis. What the issue of that will be I can not foretell, but the fact that so many eminent friends of London University favor the new movement seems to me to show that even for the British islands that experiment is far from being considered at present successful. It is, however, an experiment that was rendered necessary by historic conditions in Great Britain many years ago. Those conditions are now removed and dissenters are admitted to Oxford and Cambridge on the same footing as the members of the church of England.

If it is proposed to follow not merely the example, but to take that one petty aspect of the work of London University; viz., the granting

of degrees on those who have never studied in colleges, as a model for the procedure of the University of the State of New York, then it would seem to me to be a step that deserves the most serious consideration before it is taken.

Lastly, while I appreciated most fully the admirable remarks of Regent Doane, I think that there is another side to the question of examinations, which perhaps he does not fully appreciate, or at any rate which in his remarks he did not deem it necessary to bring out. When I was a student in London it was an eminently fair thing to have men from the universities of Oxford, Cambridge and London, who had never seen us or heard of us, come in and give us examinations; but in course of time, after I had had experience in teaching myself, I concluded that that was a very unwise arrangement. As Max Müller once put it, such examiners can find out what a boy does not know, and that is pretty nearly all they can do. At the present day I am strongly of the opinion that the proper persons to examine students are those who have taught them. If there is the slightest suggestion in the minds of the board of regents that it might be expedient to get the universities and colleges of this state to give up the degree conferring powers which they now have, and to have the board of regents institute examinations for us, to prepare papers and appoint examiners, then once more I should say that that is a step so momentous, and in my opinion so contrary to the wisest opinion of educational experts, that I am sure the board would very seriously consider the matter before taking any action. But I have already I am sure imagined a condition of things which does not exist. I hope the gentlemen here who represent the board of regents will excuse me for imagining it in order that I might bring out more fully my own views on the subject. After the assurances which have just been given us, we may feel confident that the regents are not going to move in this matter unless they have at their back the educational wisdom, garnered, as my friend here says, by the educational experience of the teachers of the state of New York.

**Sec'y Dewey** — College presidents and those who doubted the wisdom of taking such a step as offering degrees, were absolutely unanimous in their recommendation to the regents, and the regents have voted to open higher examinations and to give passcards and certificates. The one question is whether it is wise to go on, and whether under any circumstances it is wise to give degrees. The little leaflet with the plan here, after having been under consideration by the regents for 10 or 12 years, finally at the conference called last

February was recommended unanimously to the regents by the college men, and the college men who were most afraid of the experiment of offering these degrees are the very men who are most desirous that the regents should open these examinations and will help us in any way they can. We have nine tenths of what is wanted; the only question remains, is it wise to add the degrees? The examinations are established and will go into effect next fall.

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Thursday morning, July 7

## STUDY OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL SCIENCE IN UNIVERSITY, COLLEGE AND ACADEMY

PRES. JOHN F. CROWELL, TRINITY COLLEGE, NORTH CAROLINA

There is no more remarkable change in the history of modern thought than this: that the economic and social sciences, not long since regarded as being the very embodiment of the philosophy of despair, are now held to contain the positive elements of a growing faith in social regeneration.

Great and sudden as the change seems, yet it has a long preparation back of it. There are three distinct stages of development in economics in the past 100 years in each of which a particular social interest was in turn preeminent.

First, economics formulated primarily as a governmental science, with a view of finding the laws which govern the increase of public revenues. This was economic from the point of view of the governing classes and so called very properly political economy or the wealth of nations.

The second phase of modern economic development gave us a science from the mercantile point of view; that is, a science in which the manufacturing and the commercial classes were more directly and vitally interested.

The third step in economic progress came because neither of the other two points of view were adequate to interpret fully the facts of economic life. This step brought us to the science of the industrial classes of society. This is the present stage of growth. Now we call the subject economies of industry.

One clear result of the 100 years process has been to make economics less of a natural and mathematical science and more of a social and moral science, bringing the subject within the grasp of the popular intelligence.

The social sciences, as we speak of them here, include economics. A more thorough and exhaustive study of the political, the moral and the economic aspects of human activity has in course of time made necessary critical examination of the assumptions on which these sciences were based. This study of assumptions and data has given us sociology, which is the fundamental study of the social sciences.

Sociology treats of the way in which man behaves himself under natural law. It is related to politics, ethics and economics very much as geology is related to physical, political and commercial geography. The roots of ethics, politics and economics run down deep into sociology which is the substratum of these social sciences; while above these three sciences we have history, the product of man's varied activity under the influence of these several impulses moral, political and economic. All history has these three motives to some extent woven into its fabric.

This is the relation of the economic and social sciences to each other, as understood in professional circles. Within these circles the spirit of the teacher has changed within a single decade. Only lately the aim of all anthropological research, of all sociological study, was to get a knowledge of mankind; to-day it is to better the conduct and condition of humanity.

In this spirit the colleges and universities have been working away at the one end of these subjects of politics, ethics and economics as sciences mainly; while at the other end the working classes represented in the Knights of Labor, the Farmers' Alliances, the Industrial Unions of various kinds, in and out of season, study these more particularly as an art. It was the fashion in my student days for scholastic economists to lay down social and economic dogmas which the masses could believe and be saved or disbelieve and be damned. But the industrial classes have thrown aside these as husks and theory, whereupon we console ourselves with the thought of our having cast pearls before swine. The industrial classes have almost without the help of the schools gone bravely to work to elaborate a politics, an ethics and an economics out of their own knowledge and experience.

The multitude of toilers are to-day asking more eagerly than any other part of our people, what are the laws that should regulate the conduct of men acting primarily under the influence of economic impulses? Or, in the pitying words of Him who had compassion on the multitude, because they fainted and were as sheep without a shepherd, and are asking, what shall we eat? or what shall we drink? or wherewithal shall we be clothed? The scientific answer to these

everlasting conundrums of the race constitutes our economic literature; the practical answer of the latest authority is that which the 3,000 rioters at Homestead gave day before yesterday to 300 policemen in which the use or disuse of \$30,000,000 of capital was the issue involved.

The schools have a direct interest in this question and its answers along with the toilers.

In these sciences, put to practice, I regard the working classes as having found the best instrument of self-help; hence the obligation of the university, the college and the academy to lend themselves to the sciences of these classes in whatever way possible. Wealth needs these quite as much as labor. Therefore, the general commercial and industrial prosperity depends on the knowledge of these sciences. Likewise you might ask, what effect will the introduction of these subjects into the schools have on the public welfare?

I am confident that there is no set of subjects that will at once give our youth such resources in the art of self-government and likewise put them into touch with their own times, as would the insertion and intelligent teaching of the economic and social sciences, that is, civics, ethics and economics, into the courses of study given in our night schools and academies. The right text-books are already written and any patriotic and conscientious teacher could readily do the work.

The effect on the schools themselves is no less marked. Colleges and universities have changed from the semi-monastic to the intensely public type of institution. The college settlements in the thickly tenanted districts of Chicago, New York and London for purposes of social reformation show how the tide is moving. The subjects of commencement orations, of graduating theses, show how deeply the economic thought has already penetrated into the life of the superior institutions, whether the subject is taught in the curriculum or not. The great majority of doctorate theses are written on topics of the times. The colleges now send young men out with social ideals. The seeing of social visions is to the unquestioned credit of the young. There is no place in this land, where the fountains of public sentiment are purer, the standards of public character more highly conceived of and the sense of patriotic devotion more intense than in the colleges of this decade. It is there that the nation puts the *toga virilis* on her sons. And it may please you to hear it from the lips of a teacher of the southern youth that their sentiments of loyalty to the national ideal, as manifest in college life, are not excelled by aught that I have yet heard on this side of the line. I recognize therefore

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in the teaching of the political and social sciences throughout this nation one of the strongest bonds of a perpetual union, and I further assure you of my conviction, that if the study of these sciences had been begun in the higher institutions of the South 20 years before the civil war the colleges and universities of the slaveholding states would themselves have issued the emancipation proclamation long before Lincoln did. But history is made, we can not unmake it. Nevertheless, the American schoolmaster might have prevented disruption, and he alone can cement and seal a union that will be politically, morally and economically imperishable.

**What can the university do?** Its first duty must be, in the promotion of this study of political and social science, to gather from all fields the results of man's social experience and preserve it in an available form. (2) To digest and classify these apparently incoherent experiences, so as to prevent the civilized world from repeating its own experiences. (3) It must train for the civil service, for the college professorships, and for other administrative and mercantile pursuits; (4) It must put into form, for popular use, in colleges, academies, and for the public in general, the conclusions arrived at in all parts of the world.

**What can the college do?** 1 It can begin economics and social sciences as early as the beginning of the junior year.

2 It can put its classes to work collecting local statistics, making reports on industrial plants, studying the local government, comparing platforms, making clippings, studying highways, and transportation.

3 Make a two years' course of four subjects one for each term: economics, the state, ethics (social and individual), sociology.

Require an original paper every week. Have library of a half dozen best books on each subject.

**What can the academy do?** The pupils can be taught to have economic and social eyes. As Gov. Long said, a few years ago, "we should not rely too much on the attempt to impart political knowledge or patriotic interest solely by teaching school-boys and girls the dry details of organization of national, state and municipal governments, but that an hour a week spent in a free talk over a good newspaper that gives the actual life of an American community, with the teacher thoroughly inspired by a broad, intelligent and enthusiastic patriotism? would aid materially in bringing the pupil into a state of mind where all the details of administrative life would be rapidly picked up as fast as needed."



This is the case in the town and cities, but how about the country : there the common school is the only school, without any grades or promotions. The youth of this day is the voter of the next 10 years. The rural voter is, despite reflections on his intelligence, the yeoman in our civil life, the bone and sinew of our political life. He too replenishes the city with new blood and new life. What preparation shall he have for civic responsibilities? Besides the three R's the three essentials of academic study in these subjects, are civics, ethics and economics. The completion of these six I should call a liberal academic education. These three are essential to the best interests of the individual and society alike. They will constitute one year's course in a minor course.

Without these subjects we make the people the victims of their own impulses and prejudices. No modern instance points this truth better than the agrarian movement in the South, whose program is wholly economic in its purpose without the economic intelligence on the part of the tenantry to demonstrate the utility of the remedial schemes. Likewise the granger agitation in Iowa in the seventies. Thus agricultural distress and economic delusions embitter the political sentiments to the intensest degree. So, too, of our civil life: Christian ethics alone will cure lynching. The struggle for a purer political life in the South, North, East or West must be made in the institutions of learning; not at the ballot box; in the graded schools, the village academies and the rural school, by the early study of civics, economics and ethics, rather than in the halls of Congress. To win in the fight for a purer and stronger civil life the Blair bill was infinitely better than the Force bill. As for us send us teachers, not soldiers, if you have any interest in helping us to work out our political salvation, the secret of which lies in these three themes being taught in our schools, below the colleges and universities.

Another result of this study must be the more symmetric development of all the aspects of social improvement; for sociology studies man in his entirety and is as deeply interested in one phase of his evolution as in another. Each contribution enriches the whole social order, raises the level of freedom and forestalls a relapse in social growth. The very spirit of these sciences carries the inquirer beyond his own social unit to study the domestic, the civil, the economic, the religious or the political unit apart from his own. Thus the interchange of economic and social thought enables each people to avail itself of the best results of the experiments of other groups. If then, as the philosophy of society affirms, humanity is moving towards a goal, and if these different groups are each working out a different



social problem yet incomplete, it is true, but still, with some kind of division of labor, may we not soon undertake to answer the question, What has society already achieved that is permanently good? What yet remains to be accomplished and by what means at our disposal may it best be done? May we at least not begin now to share out the field of social and economic research, by some inter-university division, just as the astronomers divide off the heavens for astral exploration?

### Discussion

Pres. James McAlister, *Drexel Institute, Philadelphia* — The most important problem which we have to deal with in education is the placing of man in right relations to his environment. Indeed, the whole practical work of education might be summed up in that proposition — to his whole environment, the environment of nature and of man, and if I might venture to say it, the chief distinction between what is called, in the absence of a better name, the new education and the old, is the predominance of this idea that the purpose of the school, the purpose of education, is to bring man in the right relations to his whole environment. It seems to me sometimes in thinking on this subject, that if this could be discharged that the solution of the scientific and philosophic and religious problems which are so prominent in our time would be reached. In considering any aspect of this proposition there is one thing we must bear in mind; indeed, in discussing education in any broad sense, we must always bear in mind that one of the greatest changes in human society was the industrial revolution which set in something like 100 years ago, and in the midst of which we are still struggling. Next to the great movement of the Renaissance and the French revolution comes this wonderful change in the occupation of men in their relations to work; and the lamentable affair of which we read this morning in the newspapers in the western part of my own state is only one manifestation among many of the unsettled condition of this great problem. We are still in the midst of a revolution. Hence it is that the questions with which the world has to deal to-day, with which the state has to deal, and therefore education, are largely social questions. Social questions are the paramount issues with which states, thinkers and educators are dealing. They occupy a larger place in the public mind, and occupy the thought of the greatest men very much more than do political questions. We are apt to think in times of great political excitement that the questions then up for discussion are the most important, but we mistake. It is the social questions lying beneath these that are now paramount in

men's minds, and hence it is that economics have of late years found their way into the schools. There is no more remarkable phenomenon in the recent education of this country, and it is true in the case of the old world, than the prominent place that economic and sociological studies have come to occupy. When we older men went to college, some of us not so many years ago, economics had found a place in the college curriculum, but we knew what it amounted to; it was the formal teaching of a text-book, one of the two or three that were then in existence. I take it that the department of nearly every college of any account in this country to-day that is most active in a scholarly sense, the one that attracts the brightest young men and the one that is having the largest influence upon the country, is the department devoted to economics, and if I might venture to particularize, I think that Johns Hopkins has done its greatest work in the prominent place it has given specially to our own history and economics and the training of young men to go out, as Dr Adams has pointed out, all over the land as ministers of this new college. A reference has been made to the importance of economics in the topic under discussion, and I was glad to hear the speaker say that it might be pursued to advantage in the elementary school. I think that we have still to realize the importance of this. The study of government has found its place in almost every elementary school of the land, but it is of very little account, and I do not think that the boys and girls get any more than a bare idea of the mechanism of the government. We forget that between the age at which the boy and girl leave the elementary school and the age of citizenship there is a wide gap which is not filled up by the masses of our people, and probably never will be by farther education, and it seems to me we might with great advantage adopt the German idea of continuation schools. Our school administration thinks when it has sent the boy out from the elementary school if he does not go to the high school, the seminary or academy, that its duty is discharged. In the German system the young man follows his education in the continuation school or evening school, which keeps up his education along the same lines in higher departments of work through the period between the age of 14 and the age of citizenship; and here I think would be an admirable place in which to put the study of these great social and economic questions that are so important to the well being of our Union and to society in our time. In European countries they require military service of the young man at this time. We have a volunteer military service, but if the state finds that a young man should be trained to defend his own country, why should he not be trained to

understand something of the duties he is afterward to assume? Our European friends think too much altogether of the outside enemy. I think the worst enemy we have to deal with now is the enemy inside the lines. We see this vast uprising of the masses of people asking the rights to which they are entitled; no longer the political rights, but, more important and more urgent, their economic and social rights. We have a very fine example of what can be done in this way by our sister republic, the French nation. I was glad last evening that Prof. Cohn of Columbia took occasion to refer to the French educational system. We are so bound up here with admiration for the German system of education that we forget the advancement made during the last 20 years by the French republic. They have made an advancement in education the like of which the world has never seen. Nothing in the history of civilization is so extraordinary as the fact that the French republic realized that its first duty for the maintenance of a republic of free institutions was the education of the people, and they have gone about it in a broader way than we ourselves. The most admirable thing that I know of in modern education is the instruction in the three branches named by the essayist who preceded me, in ethics, civics and economics, that now form an important part of the instruction from the primary school to the Sorbonne itself.

I trust my audience is familiar with the treatises that have been issued for the use of primary schools by some of the best thinkers of France by which they have dealt with the problem that we are still asking about, as to whether ethics can be given in a system of state schools. They have solved it in a way that can not fail to produce important results, and which I think to-day go a long way in accounting for the present republic.

We have heard much about the seminarium, which I believe is the only way for advanced instruction in this subject in the college and university, in the secondary school, academy and high school. Let me say something about the graphic method, giving boys and girls questions of importance to solve in a graphic form. I have seen very much of this in the secondary schools in Philadelphia with the very best results.

One point I want to make in conclusion is the vital relation that exists between economics and ethics. I myself was brought up on the old political economy, that bloodless and most abstract of our sciences. It is not strange that we disliked it more than any other study. To-day economics is the most humane of all the scientific studies, because it deals no longer with man as a machine, but man as

a living being, as a man of soul and heart as well as of bones and muscle, and I think there can be no teaching in economics of any worth, whether it be in the university, in the seminarium, in the secondary school, or even with the little children in the elementary school, that does not regard the ethical side of man's nature as essentially connected with his economic control, and it seems to me that the future of society depends more on that connection than on any thing else; the realization that the ideals of life, the ideals that ought to be cherished in every human heart in every member of a free republic are such as grow out of the connection of ethics and economics. This will be helped very much if we can get into our schools such teaching on this subject as will make the ultimate purpose of economic teaching the elevation of human life, the setting up of these high ideals of living and the effort to realize them in our every day existence.

Prof. Herbert E. Mills—The point brought out by Pres. Crowell that our industrial and social relations have not yet accommodated themselves to the industrial revolution is an exceedingly important thing. This terrible strike and loss of life at Homestead is simply one illustration. If you go down to New York you will find that the churches are doing a great part of their work as social work. You will find a great house built by the Vanderbilt family devoted entirely to this work. You will find a number of young women who are working among the people in the same way, and the magazines are full of articles on social problems. These problems are evidently the questions of the time. Shall the college, then, pay attention to this subject? It is trying to find some scientific basis for the solution of these questions for which so much has been done by the people themselves, but there are one or two things in this connection that I should like to hear others speak about, and I desire to give a little information in regard to my own work which perhaps may suggest one or two things with regard to the object of this work. If we look at it simply as giving information it is evident that the study is an important one, but social studies are as important as any as a means of mental discipline. Admitting all that has been said of the value of the study of mathematics and classics, their training is not the kind of intellectual training that the people need in every day life. The study of the sciences in which the terms are not so certain and definite, where the course of reason must be based on a large number of uncertain data is the kind giving the intellectual strength needed in practical life. With regard to the method in my own work, I have

and existing economics, and can make themselves much more useful in their day and generation than in merely a teacher's position. The libraries of the country can render a great service in the promotion of social science. It seems to me that every librarian in a large town or city can direct public reading on these topics of social and economic reform. I have been asked by representatives of the Library School here at Albany to suggest certain lines on which the resources of this great state library could be grouped for the use of students and readers, and I said at once there was no line of bibliographic work that would be so helpful to American students and American citizens at the present time as social science topics, and I attempted to draft a few such subjects as seemed of great interest to Americans. Take for instance a topic like "The condition of the poor in our large cities," that line of inquiry which Scribner's magazine has so well inaugurated. If we could bring a good bibliography like this published by the Library School on the subject of seminary work to bear on a topic like the condition of the poorer classes, I am sure the reading of the country and the study of special inquirers would be very much helped. Take the condition of working women, child labor, railroad employees, condition of the negroes and their progress in the South, the Indian question, Chinese in America, Russian Jews in America, lodging houses, night schools, manual training; there is a great variety of topics that might become subjects of special inquiry by students in our colleges and by journalists if the material information were properly massed, and it seems to me there is no place in the country where these bibliographies can so well be worked out as right here in the Library School. There ought to be a report on the subject of social science in American colleges, in people's institutes and in public libraries prepared for publication by the Bureau of Education in Washington. Such a report has already been begun by Mr Findlay, who has been elected president of Knox College. He is very desirous of preparing a systematic report on this subject, and as it is very difficult to get the proper information, I hope that all presidents of colleges and specialists in social science will take early opportunity of communicating with Mr Findlay and of bringing together the good results of study and teaching along these lines. There is at Washington, as many of you know, a government department devoted to this science. That is the department of labor under the auspices of Carroll D. Wright. It was a bureau instituted to collect statistics regarding the workingmen in this country, but it has taken up questions like wages, and the tariff, and topics that are of special interest to students of political economy, and it is from that central source of

information that students and journalists can derive a great deal of help. Johns Hopkins University has been alluded to by the speaker as a school of social science. I wish to say that very little has been accomplished. We hope for a great deal, but thus far in none of our universities has sufficient attention been given to this great department of study. We had last year a course of lectures from Col. Wright representing some of the workings of the department, and next year we hope to have a course by Mr Gould, who has been in Europe inquiring into the conditions of the working classes in various European countries. Dr MacAlister and Dr Harris will present educational subjects for us, and Pres. Gilman is going to give us a course on the treatment of poverty and crime, and Mr Warner, the present head of district charities in Washington, will give us a course along the line of charity organization, and similar courses are to be given by others. We ought to have in our colleges and universities professors of social science who would teach the subject from the beginning to the end of the year.

Prin. W. R. Prentice — A thought worth mentioning is, that we are face to face here not only with a theory but with a condition. There is a growing feeling of discontent among the laboring classes of our country. We all realize that; and there is but one class of educated people who are able to reach them, and they are the teachers in our graded schools and academies. We may theorize all we please and write all the text-books we can, and listen to all the lecturers we can reach on the subject of economics, but till we reach by some means the pupils in our graded schools we shall fail to effect a remedy. I want to hear on this subject from principals of our academies and superintendents of schools who have had some experience in the bringing of this subject into actual contact with the people whom it is designed to benefit. Labor organizations and political parties use this discontent as powder and as material for controlling the masses. The children of our foreign population are to be Americanized in our common schools. I know enough of these schools to know that very many children of foreigners who do not themselves speak one word of English learn the English language in our common schools, and they go just long enough to get the practical part of an education. There they stop. They go out into the world thoroughly impressed with the idea that the rich oppress the poor, that it is a poor man's fight all the way through life. They know absolutely nothing of the principles that underlie the subject of economics, and hence they are easily fooled and led astray. We must do something



to meet this class of people; there must be something done in these common schools through teachers who come from our high schools and normal schools to instruct these children in the grammar course in these principles that are so plain to you gentlemen and to most of us here present. In this year 1892 it does seem to me there ought to be made a grand rally throughout the schools of New York state specially, and I would be glad to see it throughout the United States, in the teaching of American history and patriotism, of loyalty to country and the government, and when will the time come in which we can so easily reach and accomplish so good work in this line as now?

**Dr Francis J. Cheney** — I have no doubt that all are agreed that the importance of this question at this hour can not be overrated. Taking up the morning papers and simply reading the history that is making is enough to convince any one of that fact. It is a good thing for us to hear from the college and university men on a subject of such vital importance as to how the question may be handled in those higher institutions; but this fact is to be remembered, that a very large proportion of the men and women that go out into the world to do the world's work, to make up society, do not go out through college doors. I am quite in accord with the last speaker when he says that this is a question of vital importance to those who are engaged in secondary work; in what has been denominated the people's college, where the vast majority of those who get any sort of higher education must get it. The principals of the high schools and academies of this or any other state need to look into this question that is so preeminent at this hour with a great deal more care than in the past. The idea brought out by Pres. Crowell should be emphasized, as it was emphasized by one speaker on the floor, with regard to a practical way in which this matter may be taught. In the state of New York there are many high schools and academies that are situated in manufacturing towns and it would seem to be a good method for the instructors in these branches to take their pupils into the factories and let them see with their own eyes what is the condition of things; let them find out under what circumstances the workingmen are laboring, the relations between employers and employed, the condition of the homes of the working people, and in this way bring the matter so closely to the attention of the young people whom they are training that they will go out into the world from these union schools and academies with something of a correct idea of what it means to be a workingman, and with ability to realize the justice of his side of the case as well as the justice of the other side. Permit me to say that it seems to me that



the regents of the University of the State of New York have a great deal to do with the instruction of these branches—civics, ethics and economics. It is well known by us who live within the limits of the Empire state that the methods and the character and scope of the instruction given to our secondary schools are determined very largely by the character of the examinations which the regents of the University send out, and if those who have to do with these matters here in the regents' office are wise they will prepare examinations that will call for instruction in these branches in the largest and most liberal sense, so that the young people who are in the high schools and academies may be taught both sides; that they may see what the arguments of the workingmen are and what the arguments of the employer. It seems to me that in this way the young people will go out with a better idea of this question than they otherwise would. They should be so instructed that they may come out of these institutions with an idea of economics that will enable them to understand some of the relations between man and man, whether employer or employed; with an idea of ethics, that they may be imbued with a spirit that will enable them to follow a course of exact justice in all their relations with their fellows; and with an idea of civics, that they may have a proper understanding of the principles underlying American government. Understanding these three great subjects it seems to me that they will go out with something of an adequate idea of what it means to be an earnest, patriotic American citizen.

Prin. W. E. Bunten — I agree with all that has been said about the importance of these subjects. I feel, however, that something ought to be said on the side of the teachers as well as on the side of the pupils. From the course the discussion has taken we might get the impression that the teachers are doing nothing in our common schools in this line of work. They may not be doing the best work they are capable of doing; they may not be doing as good work as they ought to do, but I believe that the teachers in our secondary schools and in the grammar schools are waking up to the importance of these subjects and that they are doing the best they can under the circumstances. I am sure there is a very strong effort on the part of the teachers in this state, so far as my personal acquaintance extends, to cultivate a spirit of loyalty to our government, of loyalty to the old flag, to inculcate the duties of citizenship. We ought not to ignore what is being done. It may be, and is undoubtedly true that the teaching of economics is too bloodless, that it does not go into the details of actual life so much as it ought to do, but I do believe

the teachers are making a strong effort in this direction. With regard to children of foreign parentage: they go out from our schools American children. I believe they will be found American citizens in the next generation, as patriotic and as earnestly devoted to the interests of this country as the children of American parentage. They get the principles of American citizenship in our schools, and it is for the interest of the country that it should be emphasized.

**Sup't Edwin E. Ashley** — Those of us who remember Beecher at the time of the civil war know that he did a great deal towards sending soldiers to the front, and it is reported that somebody said once, "Mr Beecher, if you are so enthusiastic why don't you go yourself?" Mr Beecher replied, "Because I can do more good at home in encouraging and sending others." And Henry Ward Beecher did not do it by generalities. He did it by taking the things as they actually existed. In that excellent paper that has just been presented one or two things particularly impressed me. One of them was: "Let the students from your schools go into the homes of these people and see how they live." Another was, that you can not separate ethics from social science. I want to deprecate the idea that it shall be handed down as a study to the secondary school. The great difficulty is that the elementary and the secondary schools are overcrowded to day with subjects of instruction, and when I ask my teachers sometimes to take a little time to talk to these girls and boys that come from the lower stratum of society in regard to uprightness of life and conduct they say, we can not take the time; our time is taken up getting ready for the examination. It is not necessary in towns like the city of Troy to take children into factories to see how they live. The children of our schools come from the factories, and sometimes we have to take them from the factories to get them into our schools. Let our teachers show these children what probity of character is. There are children in our public schools who think it is right to tell a lie. Victor Hugo I think never wrote a truer thing than when he said that some of the gamins of the streets, although they were in our sight vile, filthy and obscene, were in the sight of heaven as pure as angels, for they did not know what uprightness is and they thought it right to do what they were doing. These children have to be educated in this thing. One gentleman told the truth when he said that many of our children go out from our schools imbued with the spirit that there is a class against a class. They have not attended our schools long enough to know that this should not be a fact. I believe that saying "cleanliness is next to Godliness" is right, and cleanliness

and other noble men who have worked so faithfully in these fields, to-day economics is a science of philanthropy. It studies to know what the best interests of men are and strives to meet those interests founded upon a gospel of the golden rule. There lies the solution of this question ; apply the gospel of the golden rule and the work is done. If the parties to this terrible trouble in Pennsylvania had acted upon that principle do you suppose we should see the evils that we are seeing to-day? It is not for us to say here on this floor which of those parties is the more to blame, but we can all say and believe that if this one principle had been applied the trouble would not have occurred. Teach our young people obedience to law and the work is done and will not have to be done over again. We want teachers rather than soldiers sent to them and the constitution will be maintained, and every man will rejoice that every other man has his rights as a man, and we as teachers of political science ought not to be satisfied till we are sure that from one end of this country to the other every man has the constitutional right to which he is entitled.

Pres. James MacAlister, *Drexel Institute, Philadelphia* — We forget that we can not do very much with children under 14 years of age, and the great mass of our young people never go beyond the elementary schools; and hence the importance of dealing with the young man between the elementary school age and the age of full citizenship. Here is a practical way of dealing with this question: If we could organize, as we ought to, a system of continuation schools where young men who have gone to work could be kept in line with the ideas of duty and relation to work in citizenship, and in addition to the literary studies, which they ought to have more of, could be thoroughly trained in these economic and ethical ideas, I think a great deal of good would result. It is almost a crime that we do so little for the mass of the people when they have finished their elementary studies. The factory law should keep the children out of the factory till they are 14 years of age, and if we could organize a system of evening schools, a graded course of instruction for three or four years after the elementary school has finished its work, a vast amount of good would be realized. In connection with the subject under discussion we do not understand the importance of this kind of training. In the Belgian government no man is allowed to vote unless he has not only a knowledge of the three R's, but he must actually pass an examination in Belgian history and in the nature of the constitutional government of that country. It is foolish to talk about that thing in America, but we can do something in training our

young men in the study of economics, civics and ethics to fit them for the proper discharge of their duties; and as Dr Andrews said last night, we are no longer dealing specially with the East or the West, but with American children. I beg to call the attention of school officers, specially of elementary schools, to the practicability of doing something along the line that I have indicated.

Pres. John F. Crowell, *Trinity College, N. C.*—I used to be a newspaper man and carried some suggestions from that life into my work as a teacher. The managing editor would put on a slip a clipping as a clue to our work. We took that clipping and brought in as much as we wanted. We had to make a long story short or a short story long. It is so in teaching. For instance, I have an article cut from the *New York Sun* on the sick children of the poor. I give this to a student and ask him to find out the meaning of the word poor. If he has not a definite idea, to go to a number of people who might think they were poor and ask them if they regarded themselves as poor, and find out whether or not they were really poor and whether there is any distinction with them as to what a poor man is or a rich man is. These young men take this clipping and bring back very interesting reports. They develop their ideas rapidly and make themselves capable of undertaking the next one with very much better effect. Then we take some difficult problems; I ask some one who has a legal turn to write out the process through which one has to go to get a railroad into the hands of receivers. He brings back a report; he may search a good while for it, but we give him plenty of time. I ask another to go and find from whatever source he can as to the Hebrews as farmers, and why it is that the Hebrews have not been an agricultural people. My sympathies go back to the boy in the country school and I will tell you what we have done there. We tell the boys that on Saturday we are going to make up a report of the size of all the farms in the neighborhood and we want each one of them to tell how many acres of land there are in his father's farm; then we call up the question to see whether the large or small farms are in the better condition, and perhaps that is enough for the first time. Then we take the products and each boy goes home and finds how many bushels of corn have been raised in the last year, and the girls go home and find out how much butter was made and what the consumptive capacity of the farm is. Then we ask the boys to tell us how many days their fathers actually work on the farm; and if that were inquired into in the South or the West I think it would reveal a surprising condition of things in many cases, and we should not won-

der that there is lack of prosperity. There are a great many boys who can not come under my influence as a teacher. I can reach but a few people at the best, so I put these clippings on a sheet of paper and write a reference to the best cheap book I know on the subject and file that away, and these teachers or editors or others who are inquiring along these lines write to me for information. I gather all the clippings I have out of my list and send them off. I have stamped on each one to return to me after 10 days. They get 10 or 15 points of view of this problem, they study it up and in a short time really become masters of it to a considerable extent. What the people want is not big books; they want suggestions and that is about all; they can do their own thinking. Give them the suggestions and they will be stimulated to more earnest work. Ask a boy how much it costs to carry a ton of produce five or ten miles by horse and wagon. When he has found out, get him to find out the same thing from the freight agent at the railway station, and compare the cost. Then you get him into the habit of these complex problems and he will feel at home in them. There are many other questions that we might take up. I have been very much interested in what has been said here, and I wish to say that I do not know a single class of people that is not working on this line. A great many do a great deal without really knowing that they are working at it; the clergy are doing a great deal, the railroads are doing a great deal. At a meeting of ministers in New Haven some time ago the question of the relation of the church to socialism was discussed. They had read some magazine article on the question, but I believe in their parishes they had never been in a factory. During an investigation which I made in Rhode Island on the question of the employment of children in factories I never saw a minister in a factory, and he rarely visited them. On this occasion somebody was denouncing the Pennsylvania railroad. I took the liberty of saying that the Pennsylvania railroad, which had inaugurated some fine schemes for the protection of its employees, had done more, I believed, for the good of their employees than all the ministers of the state; and I believe it is so with all these large corporations. They are doing far more than we imagine them to be doing. I remember one corporation which distributed 60 shares of stock among its employees in the South within the last few years, because these men had stood by them. If that is not helping towards the solution of this question I do not know what is. The teachers are not the only ones that can do this work. Let them put some confidence in other classes. Christian Endeavor societies will find plenty to do if they

simply open their eyes and look out on the field which is so ripe. There is an economics of Jesus, of the gospel, and it has taken an economic age to draw it out. If you will read the gospels with this point of view you will find the finest philosophers for the guidance of your endeavors along these lines, and out of the New Testament you can get the purest of truths along these themes. Being a northern man I speak as one who has seen the greatest of social problems in America from both sides. My first trip to the South was made because I felt in my heart that there must be another side to the question than that which we see, and that is the inside. I have been working from that point of it, and speak with a little ardor, I must confess, when I am among those who have looked at the subject from a distance, and with considerable confidence; and if you wish to share the joys and the experience with me come to Durham, N. C., and my house will be open to you. We have a beautiful little college and in it we could entertain most all of you; we will discuss these things together and touch the subjects of inquiry with a loving hand and a warm heart. I am sure we do not get along as rapidly as we might on these themes because we do not know each other better, and because we have yet to get a fuller acquaintance and a more hearty appreciation of all sides of the question which deeply concerns us all.

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#### CONVOCATION COUNCIL

Prin. A. C. Hill—I move that a committee of three be appointed by the chair to make nominations for the Convocation council. It has been the custom to elect these members by vote of the Convocation, but it seems to me desirable to have the work done in this way.  
*Voted.*

#### REGENTS' DEGREES

Pres. H. E. Webster introduced the following:

*Resolved*, that in the judgment of this Convocation it is inexpedient and unwise for the regents of the University of the State of New York to confer the academic degrees of bachelor of arts, master of arts and doctor of philosophy on examination, however strict.

I should hardly feel equal to assuming the responsibility of saying that the question should be put without debate. I should like to hear from Dr Taylor and Dr Butler of the committee. I think we should not care to have it passed upon without its merits being considered.

The resolution was laid on the table.



## NECROLOGY

REPORT OF COMMITTEE BY O: W: BARDEEN, SYRACUSE, N. Y.

Mr Chancellor, the fact that it is I who stand here instead of the well-known figure that has arisen for so many years when the report on necrology was called for, suggests at once our overwhelming loss of the past year. Since I have known educational men, I have found no other who so combined in universal regard the trusted official with the personal friend. The death of Dr Watkins was felt by all of us who knew him to be not only a public calamity but an individual loss, and I am glad that time is to be given not only for the memorial by his friend and associate Principal Rhodes, but for spontaneous personal tributes from other academy and college men present.

Another former state officer and *ex officio* member of the board of regents died on Jan. 4. WILLIAM BENJAMIN RUGGLES was born in Bath, Steuben county, May 14, 1827. He served with honor and distinction on the Judiciary committee of the legislative sessions of 1876-77, contributing largely to the perfecting of and working zealously for the passage of the Code of Civil Procedure. On January 30, 1877, he delivered a speech before the assembly in favor of the abolition of the normal schools of the state. This speech was generally copied and aroused a great deal of discussion and controversy by the press of the entire state; it is therefore significant that after his election as superintendent, he became on a closer study of the subject a warm advocate of these schools.

He was appointed first deputy Attorney-General of the state by Mr Schoonmaker. His term of office expired in 1882, and in the following March he was chosen state Superintendent of Public Instruction. On January 1, 1885, he resigned this position in order to accept that of deputy Superintendent and legal counsellor of the New York State Insurance department.

Among college professors, the deaths in chronological order have been as follows:

July 6, at Antwerp, Belgium, FREDERICK LOUIS RITTER, director of music in Vassar College.

He sailed from this country on June 17, in perfect health. He was born in Strasburg in 1834, and in 1852 he was appointed professor of music in the protestant seminary of Fénéstrange, Lorraine. In 1856 he came to the United States. He organized the Cecilia and Philharmonic societies in Cincinnati, where he lived until 1861, when he came to New York. In 1867 he organized and conducted at Steinway hall



the first musical festival held in New York. He was appointed professor of music at Vassar that year. In 1878 the University of the City of New York conferred the degree of doctor of music upon him. He was well known on both sides of the Atlantic as a writer on musical topics, and besides numerous articles in American, French and German periodicals, he was the author of several volumes.

July 18, in Yonkers, of apoplexy, EBENEZER ALFRED JOHNSON, president of the faculty of the University of the City of New York.

He was born in New Haven, Ct., Aug. 18, 1813, was graduated from Yale and became tutor in that institution. He also studied law and was admitted to the bar. In 1838 he came to New York and became assistant professor in Greek and Latin at the university, and two years later was appointed professor of Latin, which position he held until his death.

Aug. 15, in Syracuse, JOHN J. BROWN, emeritus professor of chemistry and physics in Syracuse University.

He was born on Feb. 7, 1820, at Amenia, Dutchess county. He was first a methodist minister in a small town in northern Pennsylvania, but he had inclined toward the study of sciences from his youth and he finally became a teacher in Dansville Seminary, at Ovid, in Falley Seminary, and at Cornell. In 1871 he came to Syracuse as professor of natural science, being retired as emeritus professor in 1888.

Sept. 5, at Sheldrake, aged 72, Judge DOUGLASS BOARDMAN, dean of the College of Law of Cornell University, and counsel for the university in the suit against Prof. Fisk.

Sept. 18, in Rochester, aged 70, ISAAC F. QUIMBY, formerly professor of mathematics in the University of Rochester.

He was a graduate of Princeton, and a class-mate of Gen. Grant at West Point. He served in the Mexican war, and was colonel of the 30th New York during the Bull Run campaign of the civil war. He came back to the university, but in March, 1862, was made brigadier-general and assigned to duty in the southwest where he contracted disease from which he never recovered.

Sept. 25, at Saratoga Springs, aged 79, Rev. SAMUEL D. BURCHARD, formerly chancellor of Ingham University at Le Roy, and president of Rutgers Female College.

Nov. 9, at Ithaca, aged 29, JOHN FRANCIS WILLIAMS, Ph. D., assistant professor of zoology and mineralogy in Cornell University. His death came from malarial disease contracted while working on the state survey of Kansas.

Dec. 25, of the grip, CHARLES CHAUNCEY SHACKFORD, formerly professor in Cornell University.

He was born in Portsmouth, N. H., graduated from Harvard in 1835, and after occupying several unitarian pulpits went to Cornell in 1871.

Jan. 26, in Ithaca, aged 84, DR WESLEY NEWCOMB, a famous conchologist who made the famous collection of shells now in Cornell University, and had spent 23 years in classifying and arranging them.

Feb. 7, in New York, WILLIAM GUY PECK, professor of mathematics, mechanics and astronomy in Columbia College.

He was born October 16, 1820, in Litchfield, Ct., and was educated at West Point, where he graduated at the head of his class in 1844. After leaving the academy he made surveys for the military defences of Portsmouth Harbor, went with Fremont on the third expedition to the Rocky Mountains and served in the Mexican war under General Kearney. He was assistant professor of mathematics at West Point after that, until October, 1855, when he was given a chair in the University of Michigan. Two years later he accepted an offer from Columbia College and taught there up to the week before his death. He received a number of honorary degrees in his long life, and was the author of many standard text-books and mathematical treatises, mostly in connection with his father-in-law, the renowned Charles Davies.

Feb. 7, in New York, of liver complaint, RICHARD H. BULL, for more than 40 years professor of mathematics in the University of the City of New York.

He was born in New York in 1817. At 17 he entered the University of the City of New York, and showed great aptitude for mathematics. He was graduated in 1837, and entered the Union Theological Seminary to prepare for the ministry, but stayed only a year and became tutor, and later professor of mathematics in the university. He remained in the university until 1885, when he was made professor emeritus and received the degree of doctor of philosophy. He was the first mathematician to put into practice the plan of obtaining true time by the sun. He supplied the New York Central railroad company with correct time for many years. In 1860 Professor Bull was made president of the New York Savings bank, a position he held until a few years ago. He spent the last years of his life writing a book about to be published on the subject of six days' creation, to which he applied mathematics and astronomy in his reasonings.

In South Norfolk, Ct., March 18, the Rev. JAMES HENRY CHAPIN, Ph. D., senior professor in the College of Letters and Science of St Lawrence University.

He was born Dec. 31, 1832, at Leavenworth, Ind., graduated from Lombard University, Ill., in 1857, and after several years as instruc-

Dec. 15, at Clinton, NORMAN FREEMAN WRIGHT.

He was of the famous twin brothers, Truman K. and Norman F. Wright.

They were born in Rupert, Vt., March 27, 1815; at 16 entered Washington Academy, Salem, N. Y.; at 17 began teaching; at 20 entered Middlebury College; and after graduation continued the teaching by which they had obtained their education, giving up in 1842 the hope that they had entertained of becoming clergymen.

Truman taught three years at New London, N. H., six at Pompey, five at Jordan, and has just resigned his position at Elbridge, where he has been principal of the Munro Collegiate Institute for more than 30 years.

Norman taught two years at Red Creek, three years in New Hampshire, two years at Pembroke, nine years at Alexandria, six years at Warsaw, seven years at Batavia, and two years at Binghamton. In 1869, he was appointed professor of classics in the Cortland normal, where he remained eight years. For the next five he assisted his son Arthur, principal of the union school at Skaneateles; and since 1882 he has been a teacher in Houghton Seminary, of which his son-in-law is principal.

The reunion held at Clinton on their seventieth birthday was a delightful occasion. The twins, so closely resembling each other 20 years ago that their best friends hardly dared call either of them by name till he had given some hint of his identity, had differentiated somewhat, Norman having grown noticeably thin and feeble, while Truman was still as hale and hearty as a boy. But on this evening, when one reminiscence followed another until the two had almost forgotten the present in their recollections of their early struggles and triumphs, it was really marvellous to see them grow more and more alike again, until it was no wonder that Mrs Benedict, turning suddenly, addressed her father as Uncle Truman.

For the last few weeks Norman had been growing feeble, and a week before his death he said to Truman, "As I feel now, I would rather be on the other side." Speaking of the reunions of their college class which both had always been careful to attend, Norman said to his brother, "When our class meets again, and my name is called, do not feel too badly that I am not there to respond." It was a curious coincidence that on the very day that Norman died another of their classmates was buried, the Rev. Dr Ranney, of Kalamazoo, Mich.

Dec. 13, at Carmel, Rev. GEORGE CROSBY SMITH, for 25 years president of Drew Seminary.

He was born in East St Johnsbury, Vt., July 10, 1830, graduated from Wesleyan University in 1856, taught in Drewville Institute, Putnam county, a year; at Sanbornton Bridge, N. H., a year; in Newbury, Vt., from 1858 to 1865; and since 1866 as principal of Drew Seminary.

Jan. 8, in Flatbush, ANDREW WHIGAM, formerly principal of Johnstown Academy, and later of schools on Long Island.

Feb. 5, in Lockport, aged 65, of heart disease, LEWIS HARMONY, formerly principal of the junior department at Lockport, and in 1859 of the union school at Niagara Falls. He afterwards returned to Lockport as a business man, and became a member of the board of education.

March 25, in Catskill, HENRY B. COONS, superintendent of schools.

He was born in 1866 at Elizaville, and graduated from Claverack Institute, and Wesleyan University. He was a gentleman and a scholar, and had proved himself a superior teacher.

April 22, at Flatbush, aged 55, Rev. ROBERT GRIER STRONG, D. D., for 15 years principal of Erasmus Hall Academy.

April 8, at Englewood, N. J., DAVID BEATTIE, former principal of the Troy high school.

He was born at Seneca in 1833, and graduated from Amherst in 1859. He taught at Montgomery, Ala., and at Port Jervis, and in 1870 came to Troy as principal of the high school. His energy and practical judgment so impressed the school board that he was soon made superintendent, a position he occupied till last summer. The following tribute from Principal Hunt of the high school gives expression to the general sentiment among the Troy teachers:

"As a counsellor and inspirer of other teachers he had few equals. He loved a vigorous character in teachers as well as in scholars, and could easily overlook faulty methods of instruction if only there was downright activity. Growth along right lines of advancement, sturdy growth, he looked for and would have. It was because of his catholicity of method that his subordinates felt confidence in his judgment and sought him for counsel. Rarely did his coworkers, after approaching him, leave his presence with a doubt as to the superintendent's real views or the position where he would be found firmly to stand. When we recall the fact that for 20 years he safely and wisely governed the course of local education in the midst of various political shoals, we can faintly realize his skill in management. Only the combined memories of many school commissioners could clearly reproduce the whole.

It was among the pupils, by personal contact and indirectly through inspiration of the teachers, that his thorough-going manliness made itself an extensive force. Here was an influence which no science can estimate. To uplift the youth of Troy was his work. For this were his cares, from this he drew his hopes. In the bettered lives of pupils, and in the hearts of children of a larger growth, will be his best memorial.

At Watertown, April 14, Rev. E. M. WHEELER, for four years principal of Ives Seminary.

He was born in Depauville, June 8, 1832, spent four years at Fairfield Seminary, and entered Union College for the last term of junior year. He did not graduate, but became a teacher, serving two years at Trenton, six in Syracuse, six at New London, six as principal of Pulaski Academy, and four as principal of Ives Seminary. Last October he went to Watertown to engage in business with his son, and in January became pastor of Bethany chapel.

While driving, his horse was frightened by an electric car. He was thrown from his carriage, his head struck the stone sidewalk, and instant death resulted.

May 1, in Fall River, Mass., aged 50, of cancer of the stomach, ROBERT T. LEIGHTON, Ph. D., formerly principal of the Central School, Brooklyn, and since Jan., 1891, of the high school at Fall River, Mass.

He was widely known throughout the country through his authorship of the history of Rome used by many colleges. He also edited a Greek and Latin Grammar, and at the time of his death was engaged on a history of Greece, which may be published by his heirs.

Among trustees and benefactors, mention should be made of the death of Mrs Harriet L. Packer, who died in Brooklyn, Jan. 26, aged 71, of heart failure.

She was a daughter of the Rev. Benjamin Putnam, a Baptist minister, and was born in Massachusetts. She was married in 1842 to the late William S. Packer, the founder of the firm of Packer & Bunsteil, warehousemen, of New York. Mr Packer, who died in 1851, was a trustee of the Brooklyn Female Academy, which stood on the site of the present Packer Institute. The academy was burned on January 1, 1853, and Mrs Packer gave \$65,000 toward the erection of the institute in its place. In her honor the name of the institution was changed, and she was also given the right to nominate candidates for any vacancies which might occur in the board of trustees.

## REGENTS' DEGREES

The resolution of Pres. Webster was taken from the table.

Pres. J. G. Schurman — I think it is unfortunate that a resolution of so much moment as this should be passed without any debate or discussion whatsoever. I have my own mind made up strongly on the subject, and yet if anything is to be said on this question I should be glad to hear it and give it due consideration. The object of the Convocation is, so the ordinances prescribe, "to ascertain and formulate educational opinion; to make such recommendations as experience may suggest; and by the cooperation of all the institutions of the University to advance the cause of academic and higher education." It seems to me, sir, that we are not likely to have before this Convocation for some years to come a more momentous question, a question fraught with more significant issues than the one which has been brought before us by this resolution. I indicated in a very moderate way my own feelings on the subject yesterday. I rise to suggest that the question ought to be debated before the resolution is passed, yet of course if all the members of the Convocation are of one mind there is no need of debate. My own opinion is that it would be a grave mistake and blunder for the regents of the University of the State of New York to grant these or any other of the great historic degrees on mere examinations. The degrees of B. A., M. A. and Ph. D. and other degrees have a well ascertained meaning. That meaning has been given to them by a long period of usage. They mean among other things, residence at a university. That in itself may not be of very much significance, and it certainly is not of much value in some cases; but when we speak of residence at the universities of this country we mean more than the eating of dinners or the bodily presence of candidates on certain occasions of the year. We mean that men remain at universities nine months in a year for four years; that the candidates have been in personal intercourse with other students laboriously working out the same problems, aiding one another in development. It means still more; these students have been all this time under instructors for three or four hours a day for five or six days of a week in lecture rooms, and if they are scientific students for two or three hours of that time they are in the laboratories of the university. The proposal that degrees should be given to those who have not received these advantages, to those who are simply able to pass certain examinations, seems to me a mistake and a blunder. I should not have thought it necessary even to say as much as I have said had I not been told that the remarks which I



made yesterday, which were meant to be conservative, were construed as meaning that I was in favor of granting such degrees. I am uncompromisingly opposed to it, and while I thus express my opinion I wish at the same time to express my fullest sympathy for any and every movement which adds to the betterment of all classes of education in the Empire state. I am in full sympathy with the work of the secondary schools and with the university extension movement, but just as I should deplore it if our academic principals proposed to give these degrees to those graduating out of their institutions, still more am I opposed to it that they grant these degrees on examinations alone without attendance at the institutions. We can not afford to break the traditions of the civilized world. If this movement should ever become an actuality, then in the state of New York the degrees of B. A., M. A. and Ph. D. granted by our universities would seem to be devoid of all significance whatever. The state of New York can not act alone, and till the great universities of the country propose to abolish degrees we can not afford to take the step which practically leads to their abolishment in the historic sense of the term in the state of New York. I speak with the fullest sympathy for the work which the regents have in hand, and with the conviction that the regents of this state have not the slightest intention of doing anything for which they have not the support and cooperation of the colleges, universities and schools of the state of New York. I support most heartily the resolution.

**Bishop Doane**—I suffered from the same difficulty that the president of Cornell did in being misunderstood. The regents of the University are not committed to any action without the cooperation of the colleges and universities. The Convocation may be absolutely certain of that with or without the resolution.

**Sec'y Dewey**—Is this resolution intended to include the action that was taken by the regents recently and that is contemplated by the new law? The new law forbids granting a charter with power to confer degrees to any institution having less than \$500,000. That has been the sentiment of the Convocation. When the suggestion was made that certain institutions ought to be able in a four years' collegiate course in residence to grant the degree at the end, the answer was that the degree could be given by the state but that it would require in addition to the four years of residence the examinations. I ask information from those who support this resolution whether it is intended to cover only giving the degrees on examinations.



**Prof. B. I. Wheeler** — The resolution as presented is not mandatory or legislative; it is simply advisory to the board of regents. It has seemed best that the Convocation should express the opinion which I think is universal, that we do not believe it best for the regents to assume the task of granting degrees for this university extension work. We express that opinion definitely in a brief resolution with the idea that the regents will understand it to be advice and will interpret it as advisory in the connection in which it is raised. I believe there can be no doubt that this resolution will be understood, sir, and that we shall not find that any individual college is disfranchised or put out of existence by a purely advisory resolution.

The resolution was adopted unanimously.

**Watkins memorial meeting** — At the close of Thursday morning's session a memorial meeting was held by the friends of the late Assistant Secretary of the University, Dr Albert Barnes Watkins. The biographical sketch by Prin. Rhodes and remarks by former associates are printed with Memoirs at the end of the Convocation proceedings.

**Bishop Doane** — If I may be permitted to say it, because this is my first experience and participation in the University Convocation, I have esteemed it and shall ever remember it as one of the privileges and honors of my life to have been allowed to have been associated with the men of this University Convocation, and I greatly regret that duty demands my absence from the concluding session.

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Thursday afternoon, July 7

**Convocation council** — The chair appointed as a committee to nominate Convocation council for ensuing year, Pres. J. M. Taylor, Prin. A. C. Hill, Prin. Marcellus Oakey.

## UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

### CLASS WORK IN EXTENSION TEACHING

JOSIAH H. PENNIMAN, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

The absence of a taste for learning may be due to either of two causes — first to ignorance of the existence of such learning, or second to lack of any motive to appropriate it. These two reasons suggest the nature of the lecturer's work. Having made his audience acquainted with the beauty and utility of his subject and the possibilities for individual work which it affords, he finds himself in the presence of two classes of people. The first class are those to whom the

presentation of the subject is enough to arouse a desire for further knowledge. The second are those in whom little or no interest is thus aroused but who by judicious management may be made to acquire it.

The former need only instruction and guidance while the latter require some stimulus before they will attempt any work that requires guidance. One can not guide a horse that refuses to move but the beginning of motion and the beginning of guidance should be identical in time although they are not in order of causation. In extension work the problem is to secure motion and this is to be accomplished almost wholly by means of class work.

The lecturer may be said to have two divisions of his work; instruction and stimulation, but better one, stimulating instruction.

On beginning a course the lecturer should emphasize particularly the educational nature of the work. He should state clearly what university extension is, but he should be equally clear in stating what it is *not*. There has been in some centers too much of the feeling that, after all, extension lectures are just like any other popular lectures and that class work is merely an appendage which is not at all important.

The question which now confronts the lecturer is how to induce members of the class to send the weekly exercises. The following suggestions are based on experience and not on any preconceived theory of class work.

Carefully avoid giving the impression that every paper sent must contain answers to all the questions on every given lecture, but ask that answers be sent to any of the questions or to any part of a question in which the student may feel interested. Assure the class that they are perfectly free to send to the lecturer questions on any point on which they may desire information. This has a tendency to make them think, and experience has shown in many instances that if a person can be induced to put pen to paper or to exert himself in any way to ask a question the transition to answering the questions of the week is not a difficult one.

Diffidence can be overcome gradually and the first step is always the hardest.

Let us now suppose that the lecturer has before him a paper containing answers, and it may be questions, in connection with the last lecture. In what way is this paper to be treated? This is an important question for on the answer to it may depend the success of the course so far as it concerns that student. If the paper is a poor one, the answers being incomplete and inaccurate, it has probably been sent by one to whom university extension may be a means of entrance

sion work. It is better to take a few leading ideas and thoroughly impress them than to supply the class with great stores of facts and other information which they may or may not remember.

One sound principle or idea is worth more to the extension student than a dozen facts. The class should be devoted very largely to the practical application of the principles of investigation and study set forth in the lecture.

Much good is to be derived from informal discussions in which the members of the class take part; but while the truth of this statement is generally admitted, the question is asked,—how are such discussions to be started? “If we can induce one sheep to jump over the wall, the rest will follow.” Apply this principle to the extension class and the problem is solved. The lecturer, like the magician should have accomplices in the audience. Arrange before hand with several members of the class to start the discussions and raise questions, and soon there will be no further difficulty.

These few thoughts on the practical working of extension classes are the results of experience, but their soundness may be tested by comparison with the pedagogic doctrine that “education is an impulse and not a fact.”

The educational value of any movement is directly proportional to its power to impart this impulse.

The principles of university extension are sound but on their application in class work depends its highest usefulness. The lecturer brings before the people the richness of a subject and points to roads along which they may travel but it is in the class that he is to drive home and clinch the truths which the lecture furnishes.

The informal interchange of ideas, the rubbing of mind with mind, often does more than anything else to draw out and develop the thinking powers of the student and secure permanence to results. While university extension can not, for the present at least furnish to its students all that is included under the term “a college education,” still it can and should in its class work aim to cultivate the mental powers of concentration, distribution, retention, expression and judging, powers which, as President Gilman in a recent article has shown, lie at the foundation of every liberal education.

## TEACHING MATHEMATICS TO EXTENSION CLASSES

PROF. EDWIN S. CRAWLEY, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

It is needless for me to say anything to justify the existence of mathematical courses in a scheme of university extension teaching. The theory of university extension is that if the people can not go to

that now attempts this work in Philadelphia, is so situated and the members of its mathematical classes come from all parts of the city. The organizers of the course have a two-fold problem to solve. They must select a subject (1) that will be of the greatest practical advantage to the students; and (2) that will draw an audience of sufficient size to make the venture fairly successful financially. The courses in Philadelphia seem to have been well chosen to meet both these requirements. In order to assist them in planning the work for next year the managers of the association center of Philadelphia have sent to all the draughting offices in the city a ballot card containing a list of seven subjects in mathematics, viz: algebra (elementary), algebra (more advanced), plane geometry with applications, solid geometry with applications, trigonometry with applications to mechanics, descriptive geometry, and geometry of the conic sections; and seven subjects in applied mechanics, viz: elementary theoretical mechanics, strength of materials, principles of mechanism for transmission of power, steam boilers, their design and construction, the construction of the steam engine, dynamo-electric machinery, and plain facts about electricity. Each man is to record his first choice for one course under each head and the chief draughtsman is then to return the result of the ballot at his office to the committee of the center. This plan seems to work very well, as I am informed that a number of returns have already been made, showing that the interest manifested during the last two years has not flagged. The subjects that are most in demand are trigonometry and descriptive geometry in the one set and strength of materials in the other.

In conclusion I have one suggestion to make that I think would greatly enhance the efficiency of this work. Under the most favorable conditions it seems that only a comparatively small proportion of the class can get enough of a given subject in one course of lectures to pass a successful examination; I mean an examination that is a test of substantial knowledge of the subject. Want of time prevents me from going into the reasons for this and they are probably sufficiently obvious. If such members of the class as needed additional assistance could meet, once a week between the lectures, some person other than the lecturer who would conduct a careful quiz on the subject and find out what points needed further elucidation and where their methods of work were faulty, this weakness, it seems to me, would in a great measure be overcome.

## REPORTS FROM NEW YORK CENTERS

## In order of establishment

Ralph W. Thomas of the regents' office read the following reports:

**Albany.** The managers of the Albany university extension center hoped for an attendance of 100 at the first course of lectures, but hardly dared expect more than 50.

On the evening of the first lecture there were nearly 400 persons present and the average during the course has been over 300. The value of these lectures perhaps is best indicated by the faithful attendance of the members of the class and by the deep interest which was evinced by them in the subject.

The records in your office will show that 20 of the class tried the examination. In my opinion the most valuable part of the university extension system is the free discussions held before each lecture. The average attendance at these meetings was about 100.

Our students club has just been started but we have without doubt a membership of over 25 earnest students.

We have arranged for courses in history and literature for next year, and are assured that there will be an attendance of 500.

The tickets for our first course of lectures were sold at a dollar for the course and more than paid our expenses so that our \$5 membership guarantee fund is intact.

GEORGE W. STEDMAN, *Secretary*

**Yonkers.** The response and sympathy which the work here met with, was highly gratifying. The general character and standard of the work were likewise. The interest in general was marked, and our managers feel well repaid for their labors.

University extension of course has its very decided limitations. On that point I have long been very decided, and my experience has shown me the same; but if the work be kept directly under the supervision and guidance of the universities, and be conducted by professors from the universities, and in accordance with college methods, so far as such general work will allow, and be not carried on in desultory or dilettante fashion, the effect on a community can not but be elevating.

A. V. WILLIAMS JACKSON, *President*

**Ballston.** Some of the members of the Ballston Spa center have been interested in the extension movement ever since its introduction in this country. As soon as New York state took up the movement, we began to make inquiries, and when the matter was perfected by

the department we resolved to start a center. On January 23, we had our first lecture. We had no meeting previous to that as the organization was effected by personal visits. That implies of course much hard work and much time spent, but the committee who had the matter in charge knew full well that, should a public meeting be called, it would be attended by very few, nearly all of whom would take no further interest in the matter.

After a number sufficient to guarantee the expenses had given their pledges, the next matter and, strange as it may seem, as difficult as any, was the selection of a subject. Some did not want one subject because they did not know anything about it, and others did not want another because they thought they knew enough about it. On asking one person what would be a pleasing subject, the answer was "history." "What history?" "Why something about the history of all countries," was the reply. It was really quite difficult to convince the person that 10 lectures would scarcely suffice to give a very extensive course on the history of the world.

The course finally decided on was a brief history of English literature. That of course covered too much ground but we thought the best way to convince people was to let them try it and so it proved. Professor McClumpha gave us a brief history illustrated by authors of different periods. The most popular lectures seemed to be those on Chaucer and Lowell. At the beginning of the course a person said, "I have studied English literature in school and after finishing this course, I shall consider myself quite up in this branch." After the last lecture the same person said, "I wish we could have a course in English literature every year and I think it would be very delightful if we could spend the 10 weeks on one author." One of the most valuable results of the movement seems to be that people become dissatisfied with what they know and eager to go on with the work.

We had 37 regular members, 14 of whom were school teachers, two lawyers, one banker, one postmaster, one merchant, one stenographer. The remainder were mostly women of leisure. The center was criticised as being "a gilt edged affair." We tried to have it otherwise but in stating the plan, we knew it must first of all be a financial success or it would die with the season. Every member subscribed five dollars, and then we opened the lectures to the public at 25c ; but few availed themselves of the privilege. Next year we propose to put forth a great effort to reach the people in the mills and shops of whom the town contains a number that ought to be interested in this work.

to 6 p. m. and Saturdays from 2 to 9 p. m. The demand was such that we decided to keep the library open every day and evening except Monday evening, the night of the lecture and Sunday. The school board added such books on American history as we needed, and the number of books drawn increased 10-fold and has kept up since the course closed. The board have added \$800 worth of books and we are now cataloguing the library by the Dewey system.

The value of the university extension course both to those who attended the lectures and to the community at large has been very great as you will readily see from the above. People from the country five miles distant attended the whole course and some of them were among those who took the examination and received certificates with honor.

The demand now is for more than one course. English literature is called for by the literary class and American history by the general public.

FREEMAN A. GREENE, *Secretary*

Poughkeepsie. Our situation was somewhat peculiar in that the course was started on a permanent basis, provided there should be found any desire for it, and without any special enthusiasm, which frequently produces at least a forced semblance of interest that does not last. We therefore had no undue enthusiasm, but we had a steady and growing interest in the work which gave us courage to renew the course early in the coming season. We saw decided good influence from last year's work, and we hope and believe that we shall get even better results from the coming season. We shall expect at the opening and through the courses this year a good attendance and, better still, and what gave a great satisfaction last year, good, honest work by the attendants. We did not try to get immediate results and we expect increased benefits the coming and later years.

C. B. HERRICK, *Secretary*

Binghamton. The Binghamton center of university extension organized early in March, 1892. For its first course it enlisted 113 active members; 57 women, 56 men. Its membership was distributed as follows: Three preachers, 28 teachers, two physicians, one dentist, four lawyers, eight laborers, 14 merchants, one manufacturer (who is also ex-Lieutenant-Governor of New York state), 50 or more classified as miscellaneous, including wives, daughters, clerks and some people of leisure.

We adopted the plan of organization recommended by the department, with slight modifications to meet local convenience. We made



the active membership at \$5 per year the basis of our financial scheme. We made 100 active members our object from the start. With that number of paid-up memberships, we could undertake the employment of a lecturer and be assured of his support. To pledge that number delayed our opening several weeks, but we felt justified in securing the financial safety first. During our canvass we secured two fellowships at \$20, and several people joined for the first course only, at \$2. Our first course cost something over \$350, and we have something more than that amount to begin the next course.

Our center has gained a measure of success because we enlisted at the beginning some good workers, who believed in university extension for Binghamton. They did and are doing much hard work without expectation of personal reward. They met with little encouragement at first, and they were obliged very often to answer the question "What is university extension?" even after considerable discussion through the local press. We have found the press very courteous and willing to publish that which could not properly be called news.

Eight of our members took the examination at the close of the first course. Over 30 signified their intention of doing so, but a very severe storm and a necessary postponement of a week deterred the majority.

We were fortunate in our choice of subject, and very happy in our choice of lecturer, Prof. J. W. Jenks, of Cornell University. In addition to his stimulating lectures, his class for general discussion after the lecture was attended by the whole membership, and the class for paper work, criticism, and discussion after reading and reflection was largely attended. The interest has not lagged at any point since beginning. The Binghamton center will continue. Indeed its future seems full of promise. The first course was an experiment. The doubts have been met with facts. Of course good management must not cease, and much self-sacrifice will be necessary on the part of those who furnish the missionary energy.

CHARLES O. DEWEY, *President*

### Discussion

The following questions were taken from the question box:

- 1 What grade of work is most desired of the extension lecturer, university or collegiate?
- 2 Is the demand for extension work in the United States as great as in Great Britain?

Prof. George Stuart Fullerton, *University of Pennsylvania* — I wish to say something quite definite, which is distinctly in the line of

the first question brought forward; i. e., What grade of work is expected or desired of a university lecturer? I should also like to speak of the particular kind of work desired of a university extension lecturer on the subject of psychology, which has interested me in our Philadelphia center and which is not represented at all in the list of subjects in New York centers. I had no idea a short time ago, though I ought to have had if I had thought about it, that psychology might be an interesting and an important study in university extension courses; but after consenting to give one course of six lectures on the subject, consisting of a general outline of some of the main divisions or points in psychology, I became aware of the fact that there was a large part of the community that are immensely interested in psychology and have no way of learning anything about it except by private reading, and that part is the teachers. We have in Philadelphia in the public schools about 2700 teachers, and we have a very large number also in the private schools. For the higher grades of teachers in the public schools psychology is a subject expected for examination. For instance, one can not become principal of a school in Philadelphia without passing an examination in psychology. Others who have no intention at all of seeking such positions are interested in the subject and want to know something about it, and in a great many of the private schools the teachers are expected to teach psychology and yet they have no way of gaining any information on the subject. There is a course of psychology in our normal school, but a large proportion of our public school teachers do not attend the normal school in Philadelphia, and in any case the course is one which is immensely crowded with students and is to be gone through in a somewhat perfunctory way, making close personal relation between student and teacher out of the question. What can be done under such circumstances? Are these subjects among those which we can study alone? I think not. After a good many years experience in teaching psychology, I have come to the conclusion that there is no subject in which the student needs more help than in psychology. Misunderstandings come up at every step. Study of facts will never make a man a psychologist. Students who merely read alone from the beginning are apt to go astray. What can university extension do in such a case? From the somewhat limited experience which I have had I think it can do this: it can take the few very cardinal points in psychology; viz., sensation, perception, the formation of speech, thinking, feeling, and it can treat these very clearly and distinctly, following the line of some text book which the mass of those teachers are interested in. I found that much the larger

ought to have something from the college men, and we ought to try to make an effort at any rate to give it to them.

Prof. W. H. Mace — I confess I have not as much confidence in experience as the basis of success as some people. My experience has been limited in this work, and like all other experience it has a personal element in it. Experience without theory is worth just about as much as theory without experience. I have had some little experience in university extension work, but I have not had time to turn back on it and find out what it is worth. I have failed to do this. Besides, my experience has been limited to simply one course of lectures given in a number of centers. That was a course of lectures on the American revolution, so my experience is drawn entirely from this limited point of view. The great practical question is, how far can the extension lecturer duplicate the work of the university in a center? This is the fundamental question in university extension work. We have satisfied the university men who put up a question mark in regard to our work. The lecture given to university classes can be duplicated in the extension center. I have heard university lecturers in a number of history classes of the best universities in America, and I have not heard many lectures given in those schools that could not be in a very great measure duplicated in an extension center. The course of lectures I gave on the American revolution was identical with the course I gave in Syracuse University to a class of seniors. Whether it was real university work or not some of our brethren who call the seminary work the only type of university work might raise a question, but the average university lecture can be duplicated in a center. I do not mean the formal lecture from manuscript, the lecture that has been well worked out in rhetorical form, but the lecture which is adapted to instruction, which goes directly to its point and is full of illustration; concrete, not abstract, in nature. That kind of a lecture can be duplicated in a center. Not only that, but in addition there can be had on that lecture a review that will be equal in substance to the ordinary review of the lecture which is commonly denominated a quiz in college. It has been my good fortune in finding in the extension fields persons who have been just as much interested in the review of the lecture as I have found college students interested in a review they have had from the hands of the professors. Not only that can be duplicated, but also the ordinary collateral reading. The work in the library can be duplicated. By means of the syllabus with directions for studying references the class in a center can carry a course of reading running parallel with the course of lectures explaining and amplifying the material pre-

with the Library School for a paper on libraries as related to university extension. The purpose was not to secure a magazine article, but to induce all women who had been or are in the Library School and who were to take up librarianship as a life work to study this question carefully and to impress on their minds the importance of university extension in connection with library work. It happens to be a \$100 greenback which bears the signature of Mrs Sexton, who is vice-president of the bank at Palmyra.

#### REPORT OF COMMITTEE

Prof. H. B. Adams, *Johns Hopkins University* — The committee on award of this prize has examined some 25 or 30 papers and the best five have been selected for rereading and more careful examination. The prize has been awarded on a paper of very decided excellence. It is a paper not only of great practical value as showing the ways and means for libraries to cooperate with this great movement called university extension, but it is a paper of very great historical value as showing the progress of the movement in this country. It is accompanied by an elaborate set of statistical tables showing in what centers all over the country university extension courses have been already given and to what extent in those centers libraries have cooperated with lecturers and other educational forces. I have felt so deeply the importance and the value of this paper that I have asked Mr Dewey, as the representative of the Library School, the privilege of having it published in a government report which I have the honor of editing for the Bureau of Education in Washington. Dr Harris, commissioner of education, has asked me to prepare an elaborate sketch of the origin and growth of the university extension movement in England and America. The report is in two parts and is now rapidly approaching completion. This particular essay I hope with Mr Dewey's consent, and with the author's, whoever she may be, to incorporate into this international report. That will not at all interfere with the publication of the article by the Library School, and in both cases the author and Library School of course will receive full credit. The prize, Mr Chairman, has been awarded to the writer whose envelope is marked "X". The remaining envelopes represent work that is worthy of honorable mention. The papers are very nearly of the same merit. They are all of more or less practical value, and all are of literary value, but it did not seem that they could be classed with the one receiving the \$100 prize. The envelopes of contestants who are worthy of honorable mention are marked "L92", "Letter A", "XYZ", and "Chi Lambda."

little cause to regret the fate which deprived them in early life of the finish to be derived from a university course." It seems to me that university extension has no enemies so much to be dreaded as those over-zealous advocates who are guilty of printing or thinking such stuff as that,—that anything can be done in those courses that will leave a person with little feeling of regret that he could not have gone to a college or university. When anything of that sort is suggested we disclaim it and protest against it. We have always said that university extension is for those who can not go to a college or university and to intensify a feeling of regret that they could not have taken a course in the higher institutions.

I want to repeat in a word what I said at Syracuse, that it seems to me a great mistake that the established institutions of learning, the colleges and specially the academies and high schools, could not be the center for this local work. I feel that it is a mistake if when university extension comes into a town the principal of the high school is not to be a leader in the work. The teachers should be the leaders in the movement, and their libraries and apparatus should be at the disposal of the university extension classes. I hope we may have here questions in regard to this and testimonials from those who have tried the experiment. There is a great force in education here that can be of great service, which is constantly misunderstood. It is misrepresented more by its friends than opponents, and I think it will be a radical mistake if it does not try to carry on this work with greater earnestness than ever before. The regents have available from the original appropriation the same amount for this work that was required last year in starting it. Personal gifts have been promised by others, so that the office will be able to do much more in the year to come than during last year, and the evidence is ample that the centers of last year will continue their work, while a number of other towns have decided to begin in the fall.

Prin. Marcellus Oakey —I realize that university extension has taken the position which was foretold last year. At that time, when the movement was first suggested, all over the state, at every convention and in every association, and all through the press, such a furor was raised, such enthusiasm was manifested over the grand advance of bringing the university to the workshop door, that many errors were made and believed in, and a position was given to university extension that did not belong to it. I realize that now comes the time when that furor has subsided, and we find university extension, that wretched misnomer being its greatest stumbling block, just

where it should be. We now find it offering to those who can not secure a university education and who yet have within them an ambition to go beyond that which the academy and high school can give them, just what they need, a stimulus, an assistance, and an upward movement and development that will make them more to the state, more to the community, more to themselves and more to society and the world at large. It can not offer them university work proper; it can give them something beyond the academy and high school. That it should quietly and systematically, through the channels already opened, work with the academies and the high schools to the uplifting of that class and to the benefiting of that great constituency of the schools, is evidenced by the position it is now assuming, and it is the time when those who quietly work and who talk little about such matters, should take hold of the movement which is of such great importance. I realize that three classes are to be benefited from this:

- 1 Those teachers who have been denied a college education and who are yet too ambitious to stagnate.

- 2 The graduates of our high schools who can not leave home but who must earn their living, and they are by far the largest class.

- 3 Those who can not get the ordinary training in our high schools and academies, and who yet have within them the same longings and the same ambition, and the same upward looking toward a better and a higher life; those in workshops and on the farms who can not get the time, toil as they must, for the ordinary school work, but who may yet have the advantage of the lectures and the hour or two of study under the direction of a competent professor, and of the benefit of meeting other minds in the same field of investigation that they may be polished by the friction.

All these classes will be largely benefited by this movement, but they never will be university people or university graduates. Never was it designed to be that, never will it be that; and I am happy to find that in so short a time the true position of university extension is being realized.

I would that from this time onward we might find some more appropriate name than university extension, that we might not be misunderstood; and that when it is mentioned in our towns and villages we may not have our boards of education and those who are to be most and chiefly benefited by it stand aghast at the very name.

Pres. John F. Crowell, *Trinity College, N. C.*—I would like to speak of the suggestion made with reference to classes to which a



superintendent could be assigned to look after their work. In my acquaintance with young people I find that there are many who do a great deal of reading, and when asked why they do not read this or that book they say that they have not had any one to tell them what is best to read, and if they knew beforehand they might have taken the books up one by one and finished a course and by that means give themselves a knowledge in that subject that could not be gotten in a desultory mode of study. There are great possibilities in this. The waste that goes on in general reading such as is done on the cars or by women of more or less leisure is enormous at this time and age; a waste for want of system in the arrangement of intellectual work or exercise of any kind. They read one book of this kind and another book of another kind; there is no connection between the two except that one follows the other. If this organization could devise anything that would put into the hands of a large number of persons who read selections of books accompanied by a few suggestions as to the mode of reading, it seems to me a great deal might be accomplished. There are a good many people who do not wish to connect themselves in a direct way with an organized movement, but who would be glad to have a leaflet containing suggestions to this effect.

Sec'y Dewey — Provision was made by the legislature before its adjournment for a fund for the encouragement of public libraries in this state. In the rules for apportioning that money there will be provision for the traveling library, for the systematic courses of reading that are proposed, and also for university extension courses and for other purposes. It is probable that collections of books may be borrowed from the state, say 100 volumes, with printed catalogues containing notes and suggestions for reading courses and also selections of books made up by the lecturers. Last year we sent out libraries made up in this way, and we shall be able to do so much more largely this year. I presume there are those present who would be glad to improve this opportunity for making arrangements to get these libraries.

*Adjourned*

## MEMOIRS

### WATKINS MEMORIAL MEETING

Senate Chamber, Thursday, July 7, 1892

Memorial prayer by Bishop William Croswell Doane:

Almighty and everlasting God, we yield unto Thee most high praise and hearty thanks for the wonderful grace and virtue declared in all Thy saints, who have been the choice vessels of Thy grace and



the lights of the world in their several generations; most humbly beseeching Thee to give us grace so to follow the example of their steadfastness in Thy faith, and obedience to Thy holy commandments, that at the day of the general resurrection, we, with all those who are of the mystical body of Thy son, may be set on his right hand; and hear His most joyful voice: Come, ye blessed of my Father, inherit the kingdom prepared for you from the foundation of the world. Grant this, O Father, for Jesus Christ's sake, our only Mediator and Advocate. Amen.

**ALBERT BARNES WATKINS, M. A., Ph. D.**

**Assistant Secretary of the University of the State of New York**

**BY PRINCIPAL O. B. RHODES, ADAMS COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE**

Albert Barnes Watkins died at his residence in the city of Albany on Friday morning March 18, 1892, in the 54th year of his age. He was born July 8, 1838, at Naples, N. Y. He was a descendant of Thomas Watkins, a resident of Boston in 1650, who probably came from Wales about the year 1635.

Dr Watkins's father, Stephen Mellen Watkins, was a man of limited financial means, and at an early age the son began earning his own spending money. Early in life his parents saw that he was inclined to hard study, and anxious to see him obtain a superior education they gave him advice and encouragement, and tried hard to gratify his desires in this respect. For a time his prospects of obtaining a college education were gloomy, but he was not discouraged. After a dearly purchased district school rudimentary education he became the pupil of William H. Vrooman, a graduate of Hobart College, who kept a private school at Naples. Soon afterwards he was placed under the care of Levi G. Thrall, with whom he commenced the study of Latin. While on account of pecuniary obstacles, he did not entertain the idea of entering college, he read with great interest Cæsar, Virgil, Horace, Sallust, Livy, and Tacitus. But the way soon opened and in the winter of 1854-55 he attended the Franklin Academy at Prattsburg, Steuben county. During the following summer he worked on a farm by the month. In the winter of 1855-56 he entered Fairfield Academy in Herkimer county, applying himself closely to the study of mathematics in the higher branches. Again he spent the summer on a farm, returning to Fairfield the same year with a view to qualifying himself for a practical bookkeeper. He completed the course in the succeeding spring, but finding no opening in that field he returned once more to the farm. Shortly after, the teacher of the commercial course at Fairfield resigned. Dr Watkins accepted the place vacated, thus

beginning his experience as a teacher. This position he filled with great credit, continuing his studies in mathematics under the instruction of Prof. Le Roy C. Cooley, later professor of natural science in Vassar College, meanwhile pursuing the study of Greek, French and Latin. In 1861 he entered the junior class at Amherst College, where he was graduated with honors in 1863.

Soon after graduation Dr Watkins accepted a position as teacher of Greek in the Fairfield Academy, and in November of that year, 1863, he married Miss Martha A. Mather, daughter of Dr William Mather, of Fairfield, for many years professor of chemistry and geology in Madison University, and a lineal descendant of Richard Mather, who came to Boston in 1635. In 1867 Dr Watkins organized Dr Hero's Willow Park Seminary for young ladies at Westboro, Mass., and taught there one year, when upon an urgent request he returned to Fairfield to take the position of vice-principal and to teach Greek and higher mathematics.

In 1870 he assumed the principalship of the Hungerford Collegiate Institute, just established at Adams, N. Y., where he remained for 12 years.

In 1878, while still principal, Dr Watkins was asked to take an independent nomination for school commissioner of the second district of Jefferson county. W. H. H. Sias had been nominated by the republicans. It was pressed upon Dr Watkins as his duty to the schools to run, and, although a republican himself, he consented. Mr Sias' natural majority would have been about 2,000, but Dr Watkins was elected by 1,600 majority. The vote in Adams was substantially unanimous for him, and at the close of his term he was reelected.

In 1882 he resigned both positions to become inspector of teachers' classes, an office newly created by the board of regents; and when Dr Pratt died in 1884 Dr Watkins was made assistant secretary of the board.

While at Adams he was appointed by the University Convocation as one of a committee of 15 to secure legislation for a larger appropriation for the academies. The efforts of the committee and other friends of the academies resulted in securing an additional appropriation of \$125,000. Dr Watkins presented several papers at the University Convocation, among which may be mentioned *The state and higher education* and the *Teaching of literature in secondary schools*. In 1874 he received from the regents the degree of Ph. D. He prepared the history of the teachers' training classes for the regents' historical and statistical record, and edited the regents' academic syllabus, published in 1888. His latest literary work, in connection

with Mr James Russell Parsons, jr, was the last edition of the syllabus of the regents' examinations, which was published in 1891 and which has attracted attention both in this country and abroad. He had charge of the preparation of all the regents' examination papers.

In 1879 he was made treasurer and in 1882 vice-president of the Association of Commissioners and Superintendents; and in 1882 was made president of the State Teachers' Association.

Dr Watkins leaves a widow, a son, Jesse M. Watkins of Chicago, who was graduated from Amherst in 1889, a grown-up daughter, and two younger children, one of whom, Frank A., enters Amherst in September Dr Watkins was a member of the Episcopal church and while at Adams, in the absence of the rector, frequently conducted the services in the little church in that village.

He was an unassuming man. His mission was to advance the best interests of education, not to gain notoriety for himself. He was without guile and without conceit. The satisfaction of doing all he could all the time for the cause he loved was sufficient for him. Yet his work did not pass unnoticed and he left admirers in and out of educational institutions, who were glad to speak of him to those who did not personally know of his steady intellect, his single heart and his splendid achievements.

Dr Watkins was domestic in his tastes. When not in his office or at gatherings of educational men he was at home with his family, a happy and contented man. There was not one coarse thread in the cloth of his character. An incident may reveal something new of his nature to those who knew him only as an educator: no matter where his duties called him or how great the demand upon his time not a week was allowed to pass, from his boyhood to the time of his death, that he did not write a letter to his mother, now a venerable woman residing in Naples in the western part of the state.

To teachers all over the state, but especially to principals of regents' schools, the news of Dr Watkins' death came as a shock of personal bereavement. He was always so courteous, so kind, so painstaking, that whatever was intrusted to him was sure to receive prompt and careful and considerate attention. He was a rock on whom principals relied.

His death seemed very sudden even to those of us who knew that he was ill. He was ill two weeks after the Syracuse meeting, but rallied and insisted on coming to the office again, hoping by short hours and favoring himself, to keep a general supervision of examinations and academic work which were his special charge. After a few days, however, he decided to stay at home and take a more thorough rest,

and from that time steadily lost strength, till he passed away peacefully as he has lived.

Heart trouble and la grippe following too close application to his office duties caused his death. He spared not himself in any of the relations of life. The biographical facts of Dr Watkins' life as narrated thus far were taken chiefly from the *School bulletin*, and were also published in the *Utica Herald*, and *Syracuse Standard*.

Numerous letters received by Secretary Melvil Dewey all express the same feeling of personal admiration for the character of Dr Watkins, and the same profound sense of great personal loss. Chancellor Curtis writes of him: "His sweet and gentle nature and his upright and devoted discharge of duty must have won the hearts of all his immediate associates in the office as they did mine who seldom met him." Ex-Secretary David Murray says of him: "I learned to rely implicitly on his judgment and loyalty in the multiform questions of the office." "He secured my affection involuntarily, unconsciously to himself," writes Vice-Chancellor Upson. Secretary Dewey in his "Personal note" of March 25 says what from a much longer period of daily association and intimate friendship I too would gladly say: "An own brother could not seem nearer or have been a truer friend. It is a delightful memory to feel that in these three years of so great intimacy there has never been the slightest cloud or lack of harmony between us. I can not express the satisfaction it has been to feel the absolute trustworthiness of such an associate in our important work. If I were to describe an ideal man for his position I should write against most of the headings as the complete description, 'Equal to Dr Watkins.' It will be the earnest effort of the office to merit in the continued administration of his department the confidence which he has so long and so cordially received from the principals, and I shall count it high praise indeed to win the verdict 'We have found as good and true a friend as we had in that rare spirit, Albert B. Watkins.'"

Indeed the testimony is abundant and uniform in praise of the life, character, and services of Albert B. Watkins. One may truly say of him in the various relations and common duties of life what Dr Johnson said of the style of Goldsmith: "He touched nothing which he did not adorn."

And now for my own part of this mournful service, "animam his saltem adcumulem donis, et fungar inani munere," for whom, bereft of his dear presence, "summer is not summer nor can be," I desire to place on the records of this Convocation, at the request of those whose wishes are to be considered sacred in such a matter, a few

So simple and fundamental was his religious life that this picture reveals it all. He was one of the excellent in the earth in whom the psalmist says the Lord delights.

We began life in Adams together in 1870, and for 12 years enjoyed personal and business relations that were always pleasant.

" We clamb the hill thegither  
And monie a canty day, John,  
We've had wi' ane anither."

Then came the unexpected burdens, cares, anxieties to save what it had been our delight to help build, to consider established. No one grieved more than he over the undeserved misfortunes of the institution whose interests he always had at heart. No one saw more clearly than he the need of unity, devotion, and self-sacrifice to build anything for the public good on a permanent foundation. No one was less guilty of the self-assertion of that stubborn individualism born of selfishness and ignorance which is everywhere the foe and the stumbling-block in the way of educational and religious progress. He was always conciliatory, hoping all things, enduring all things.

His mind loved order and method. He was always busy in some department of study, keeping pace with the educational ideas of the times. His scholarship was accurate, and his knowledge was such as to make his services to the schools in examinations of great practical value. The control of this work in the office of the regents had just been surrendered to him, and it would have been handled by him to the entire satisfaction of all the schools under the visitation of the regents. Every principal feels that he has lost a personal friend and helper in his work.

As a teacher, his pupils will remember his personal interest in them, his ready sympathy, his broad charity which covered a multitude of the sins of student life. He aimed to do good solid work himself, and to get his pupils to do the same. He could be firm and mild at the same time. He could even be severe upon occasion, but severity of speech or discipline was rare. His pupils have good reason to remember him as the kindest and the best of teachers, counselors and friends. His fellow-teachers always found him on their side. There were no faculty quarrels, or disagreements. It was a happy family of which he was for 10 years the head.

The chief qualities of this good man, teacher and citizen were hope, light, persistence. He looked always on the bright side. He tried to see things clearly and truly. He never gave up. He could toil terribly, and wait patiently. But the best of all qualities, those in which he was preeminently happy, were "the temper and behavior" in which Bishop

Butler, the great bishop of the English church, the author of the *Analogy*, says the aim of education and religion chiefly consists. And these were always admirable everywhere and on all occasions. What some try all their lives to attain, and after years of discipline show only a faint reflection of in times of stress, was his easily, the natural piety by which his days were bound each to each. He was happy in this gift. The good fairy gave it at his birth, nursed it in his cradle, developed it in life. Happy in the possession of these truly rare and admirable qualities, he was thrice happy in that he lost nothing of them in severe and trying labors, and having lived a happy life he died a blessed death.

When we think of his tale of years, so far short of man's allotted space, the lament of Longfellow over his friend, Felton of Harvard, comes involuntarily to mind:

O, what hadst thou to do with cruel Death  
That thou shouldst die before thou hadst grown old.

And when we think of his virtues and his good qualities so happily combined, we are reminded of that other lament of the same poet over Agassiz, that Agassiz who always signed himself, "Teacher," and who made the ever memorable reply that he had no time to make money:

Ah, why shouldst thou be dead, when common men  
Are busy with their trivial affairs  
Having and holding?

We might say much more, we could not say less. The mind will not always do a ready and delicate service for the heart. He died too soon for the happiness of his friends and the good of the state. There is, however, this large recompense, that if this life has less of charm the other has more. The true motive which exalts education and gives it the religious quality that makes it the catholicism of to-day is the spirit of consecration. And this spirit is deepened and made attractive by the life and services of such a man as Albert B. Watkins.

### Remarks

Ex-Prin. N. T. Clarke — Dr Watkins was too young when I taught school at Naples to attend my school, although his uncle and his aunt were both members, his mother being a little older than the others. I knew the boy, therefore, from his birth up to the time he left Naples to go to Fairfield, which was the home of his mother's relations. My ancestral blood ran through his veins, for my grandfather on my father's side was his great grandfather on his mother's side. I want to speak of Dr Watkins as a member of this Convoca-



tion. He graduated from college the same year that this Convocation was organized; he was one of the men who was associated with the early history of this body, for very soon after he took his position at Fairfield he appeared on this floor. He was then young and modest, as he always was. As I look around on this body I can see only two or three of those who were together on those occasions. I see on my left here Prof. Williams of Cornell; on my right one of the twin brothers who has been in service now some 55 years, the survivor of the two Wrights, but I see no others that I can recall. It was in the days of the good Secretary Woolworth and the days of the genial Chancellor Pruyn. We came together here as secondary principals with a sort of fear of these great and noble regents. Secretary Woolworth wanted to bring the principals of the state into connection with the great board of regents. I remember with what feelings we came here. We had never seen a regent. Dr Watkins in the course of his life came into that position which Dr Woolworth held in the old time. He was a man that stood between the great regents and the college men on one side and the academic teachers on the other. He brought about a mutual acquaintance and a mutual confidence, and we found after that that the regents were nothing but men and that the college men were nothing but men, and that the academic teachers were men, and we met on this floor as men, and for aught I could see the academic teacher was just as good a man as the college man or the regent. Dr Watkins has been the mouthpiece of the regents to the secondary schools for several years. If anybody had a troublesome question and did not want to take it to the secretary — for some reason or other Dr Watkins stood down one degree lower than the secretary, he was only assistant secretary — the teachers were always writing to Dr Watkins. Dr Watkins' one great weakness was that he was too willing to help them out, and in the midst of his labors he would give time to solving everybody's trouble and relieve everybody from difficulty. There was nobody in the state we liked to meet so much, not even the good Chancellor himself, as we did Dr Watkins, whose place is vacant to day. It was Dr Watkins' business to read the necrology report, and we never dreamed that we should live to hear somebody else read the list with Dr Watkins' name included. I like to think of the old associations, and if I am allowed to utter a little note of warning, do not take this Convocation out of the hands and out of the interests of the secondary teachers; do not let anything interfere to break up the interest of the secondary teacher. We want to keep up the old régime, we want to keep up the old associations, we want to keep up



the original idea of the Convocation. Our secondary teachers are a noble group of men and women, and they always have been about the most poorly paid men and women on the continent. They have labored and sacrificed themselves, and like Dr Watkins have overdone when they ought to have taken rest. Dr Watkins had in him long life. His Grandfather Hamlin and his Grandmother Hamlin lived to be almost 100 years old; his Grandfather and Grandmother Clarke lived to be almost 90. He was an overworked man; not because it was put on him, but because he would do it. He wanted to help everybody. He did help everybody; but, like a great many other persons he overdid and exhausted his strength and died in very early life. But his life was a grand success.

I had this question put to me when I proposed to come to this Convocation: "Your niece is going to be married on Tuesday afternoon, the oldest daughter of your brother, and it is a question therefore as to whether you shall go to the wedding or to the Convocation." I said I will go to Convocation and let my niece take her chances; for there are two or three nieces in the family. I can not break my record in the Convocation, and I am very glad to be here and very glad that the story of Dr Watkins' life has been told. I have always known his family. His widowed mother still lives. She is broken and crushed by this great blow, because she looked on Dr Watkins as her staff and strong support, and I doubt very much whether she will recover from this severe shock. She is entitled to the sympathy of everybody. I feel myself that it is a credit to our little town that such a man has gone out from it and has won such success amidst all the struggles he had in his early life. He used to gather a few dollars together by working on the farm in the summer and with that buy a book to help him along in his work. Although he was cut down in his prime, yet his life will always be marked as very successful.

Prin. D. C. Farr—For 20 years I have known Dr Watkins intimately. I have known him in his own home, in my own home and in our official relations; and I have found him as you all have, that noble man whose memory we shall cherish as long as we cherish the name of any man, and most worthily shall we do it. When I stood beside his casket in February I felt as I never felt before, except as I stood beside that of a very near relative, that I was losing a dear friend; and my experience was not different from that of yourself, dear friend. We knew him, loved him and love him still. We can not help it. We are glad that it is so. We thank God for the life of that

noble man, and it will cheer us and encourage us in many a dark day to think of what he did for us, what he did for the cause of humanity, and what he did for the cause of God.

Prin. Henry White Callahan — I wish to speak one word for the younger men who have not known Dr Watkins through a long life. There are those, Mr Chancellor, in whose presence we are tempted to talk of business; there are those in whose presence our mind is turned in a worldly direction; there are those in whose presence we are tempted to be frivolous; then there are those the power of whose whole life brings out of us all that is truest and best. Mr Chancellor, I wish to say for the younger men of New York state that the soul of Dr Watkins is a power in this state to-day. It is not only the help that he has done us, it is not the routine work that he has accomplished; but it is that sweet, pure, strong soul which lives in the heart of every one of us to-day.

Prof. Horatio S. White — I should like to add one word on behalf of the colleges and college men. Two great events of the year at Cornell are the regents' Convocation and the principals' meeting at Syracuse; two events toward which we look as an opportunity for meeting the men who send hundreds of students to us year by year. We come for counsel; we come sometimes to be chastened by criticism; we come with a willingness to accept suggestions. Those who have followed the legislation of the faculty at Cornell for the last four years will see how much that legislation has been guided and influenced by the suggestions which we have received here and at Syracuse. It has been my good fortune to officiate on many of these occasions as the representative of Cornell. When I look back over the past four years I see one person who has been so happily called the mediator, one person with whom I have consulted month by month by correspondence and in person, who if he had been different would have hindered the cordial relations which exist between the principals of this state and Cornell University. That person has been Dr Watkins, and I hope that whatever else may be said that which was said last evening, not by a representative of the college men, as to the attitude of the college men toward the school men will continue here, that our attitude is not one of independence, but of dependence on the sympathy and support of the school principals, and once more it is Dr Watkins to whom we owe largely that result.

sidary court having the same duties as the court of appeals. He held office until the commission concluded its sessions in July, 1875, and during that time wrote many important decisions.

For many years he was president of the Prison Association, and his efforts contributed largely toward the placing of the prison on a non-partisan foundation. He was the secretary of the committee of five charged by Governor Hoffman with the duties of founding a prison on a new reformatory plan, and whose labors resulted in the Elmira Reformatory.

He was for a time vice-president of the board of State Charities and was largely instrumental in organizing the State Charities' Aid Association. He acted as trustee of Hamilton College, the American Geographical Society and the New York Juvenile Asylum. He was an influential member of the famous Committee of Seventy, and contributed largely to the election of William A. Havemeyer as Mayor. In 1878 he was appointed by Governor Robinson a delegate to an international prison congress held in Sweden, and in 1884 Governor Cleveland made him chairman of a commission to consider a question of labor in the state prisons and penitentiaries and to report to the legislature.

# REGISTER

OF THE

30th University Convocation of the State of New York

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ANSON J. UPSON, Vice-Chancellor

MELVIL DEWEY, Secretary

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Lansingburg union school — Jennie Shannon.

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**Convocation ordinances**

Established by the Regents of the University

1 The University Convocation of the State of New York shall be held annually at the capitol in Albany on the first Wednesday, Thursday and Friday after July fourth.

To enable members to attend the meetings of the State Teachers' and the National Educational Associations immediately following in Saratoga, the regents suspended the above ordinance for the year, and Convocation begins and ends a day earlier than its regular date.

2 Its object shall be, by addresses, papers, discussions and resolutions to ascertain and formulate educational opinion; to make such recommendations as experience may suggest; and by the cooperation of all the institutions of the University to advance the cause of academic and higher education.

3 The membership of the Convocation shall embrace:

a The regents and all officers of any department of the University.

b All trustees, instructors and other officers, in colleges, normal schools, academies, high schools and other institutions of the University.

c The officers of the New York State Teachers' Association.

d Such others as may be elected by the regents or by the Convocation council.

4 The officers of the University shall be the permanent officers of the Convocation.

5 Each Convocation shall choose a council of five to act as its representative during the year, and arrange for and conduct the business of the next annual meeting. The secretaries of the University shall be *ex officio* members and secretaries of this council.

6 The Chancellor shall annually appoint a necrology committee to collect notices and report to the next convocation on members or other prominent educators deceased during the year.

8 The proceedings of the Convocation, with the papers and discussions, shall be included in the annual report of the regents to the legislature.

**Convocation rules**

*Established by Convocation council*

1 Unless previous notice to the contrary be given, all persons engaged to present papers must be in readiness at the time assigned by the council, in default of which all remaining papers will be entitled to precedence.

2 In case of inability to be present, immediate notice should be given to the Secretary to whom the paper may be forwarded for use of Convocation.

3 The author of each paper should furnish, in advance, a brief abstract for newspaper reports and, to prevent errors in the records, each person taking part in any discussion, should promptly give the Secretary an abstract of his remarks.

4 All papers read before Convocation belong to its proceedings and are to be handed to the Secretary.

5 Any papers for the full reading of which there may not be time, may, by permission of the council, be read by title and published in the proceedings.

# University of the State of New York

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Incorporated May 1, 1784; reorganized April 13, 1787; powers enlarged and laws revised and consolidated June 15, 1839.

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The University consists of all incorporated institutions of academic and higher education, with the State Library, State Museum, and such other libraries, museums or other institutions for higher education in this state as may be admitted by the regents to the University.

Its object is, in all proper ways, to encourage and promote academic and higher education.

Beside the State Library and State Museum, there are in the University 440 institutions — 103 academies, 252 high schools, and 84 degree-conferring and professional institutions, viz : 18 colleges of arts and science for men, nine for women, and four for men and women, seven law schools, 16 medical schools, four schools of pharmacy, 12 theological schools, three polytechnic, 11 special institutions and one library. Of these, one medical college, six theological schools, two law schools, and one special school confer no degrees.

The 16 medical schools include one homeopathic, one eclectic, two for women, one of dentistry, two veterinary, and one post-graduate college. Of the 12 schools of theology, three are baptist, two presbyterian, one each Lutheran, episcopal, universalist, Christian, catholic, German Lutheran, and reformed. The 11 special schools (except the Dudley Observatory, which is a part of Union University), include only institutions with degree-conferring powers, though to show the full facilities of the state, many institutions doing similar work should be included in this list. The law ranks as "colleges" only those with degree-conferring powers. These include three popular institutions (Cooper Union, Chautauqua, and Pratt Institute), three pedagogical colleges, one each of political science, art, music, and magnetics. While there are 74 institutions in which degrees may be earned, there are only 53 degree-conferring bodies in the state, as in a university or a college having a professional school attached, a single board of trustees confers all degrees. Columbia thus confers degrees in the schools of law, medicine and political science, and in Barnard College for women. Union confers degrees in law, medicine and pharmacy; the University of the City of New York in law, medicine, theology and pedagogy; St Lawrence and Alfred Universities in theology;

Cornell in law, pharmacy, and engineering; Syracuse in medicine and art; Niagara in law, medicine and theology.

The powers of the University are vested in 23 regents, including the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, and Superintendent of Public Instruction, *ex officio*. Regents are elected in the same manner as senators of the United States, and serve without salary.

The regents have power to incorporate, and to alter or repeal the charters of colleges, academies, libraries, museums, or other educational institutions belonging to the University; to distribute to them all funds granted by the state for their use; to inspect their workings and require annual reports under oath of their presiding officers; to establish examinations as to attainments in learning, and confer on successful candidates suitable certificates, diplomas and degrees, and to confer honorary degrees.

They apportion annually an academic fund of \$106,000, a part for buying books and apparatus for academies and high schools raising an equal amount for the same purpose, and the balance, on the basis of attendance and of the regent's examinations.

The regents meet regularly on the second Thursday of February and the second Wednesday in December. Numerous special meetings are held as called by the Chancellor or on request of five regents.

The University Convocation of the regents and the officers of colleges and academies belonging to the University, for consideration of subjects of mutual interest, is held annually at the capitol in Albany on the first Wednesday, Thursday and Friday after July 4.

The work of the University is divided into five departments:

**1 Regents' office** (Executive) — including incorporations, supervision, reports, finances and all other work not assigned to another department.

**2 Examinations** — including preliminary, law student, medical student, academic, higher, law, medical and any other examinations conducted by the regents.

**3 University Extension** — including the promotion and wider extension of opportunities and facilities for education.

**4 State Library** — including duplicate department, library school and all other library interests intrusted to the regents.

**5 State Museum** — including the work of state geologist, paleontologist, botanist, entomologist and zoologist, together with any other scientific interests of the University.

[illegible]

ALBANY  
UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK  
1893  
Price 25 cents



# Regents

ANSON J. UPSON, D. D., LL. D., *Chancellor*  
WILLIAM CROSWELL DOANE, D. D., LL. D., *Vice-Chancellor*  
ROSWELL P. FLOWER, LL. D., *Governor*  
WILLIAM F. SHEEHAN, *Lieutenant-Governor*  
FRANK RICE, B. A., *Secretary of State*  
JAMES F. CROOKER, *Sup't of Pub. Instruction*

}

*Ex officio*

In order of election by the legislature

YEAR						
1873	MARTIN I. TOWNSEND, LL. D.	-	-	-	-	Troy
1874	ANSON J. UPSON, D. D., LL. D.	-	-	-	-	Glens Falls
1876	WILLIAM L. BOSTWICK, B. A.	-	-	-	-	Ithaca
1877	CHAUNCEY M. DEPEW, LL. D.	-	-	-	-	New York
1877	CHARLES E. FITCH, M. A.	-	-	-	-	Rochester
1877	ORRIS H. WARREN, D. D.	-	-	-	-	Syracuse
1878	WHITELAW REID, LL. D.	-	-	-	-	New York
1881	WILLIAM H. WATSON, M. D.	-	-	-	-	Utica
1881	HENRY E. TURNER	-	-	-	-	Lowville
1883	ST CLAIR MCKELWAY, LL. D.	-	-	-	-	Brooklyn
1885	HAMILTON HARRIS, LL. D.	-	-	-	-	Albany
1885	DANIEL BEACH, LL. D.	-	-	-	-	Watkins
1886	WILLARD A. COBB, M. A.	-	-	-	-	Lockport
1888	CARROLL E. SMITH	-	-	-	-	Syracuse
1890	PLINY T. SEXTON, LL. D.	-	-	-	-	Palmyra
1890	T. GUILFORD SMITH, M. A., C. E.	-	-	-	-	Buffalo
1892	WM. C. DOANE, D. D., LL. D.	-	-	-	-	Albany
1893	FRANCIS MCNEIRNY, D. D.	-	-	-	-	Albany
1893	LEWIS A. STIMSON, M. D.	-	-	-	-	New York

Elected by the regents

1888 MELVIL DEWEY, M. A., *Secretary*

-

Albany

University of the State of New York

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# Regents Bulletin

No. 22 September 1893

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31st University Convocation

OF THE

State of New York, July 5-7, 1893

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## SUMMARY OF SESSIONS

Wednesday morning, July 5

Called to order at 10 a. m. by Chanc. Upson.

Prayer by Rev. Dr M. Woolsey Stryker, president Hamilton college.

Welcome by Chanc. Upson.

Welcome by Gov. Roswell P. Flower.

Chancellor's address.

Report of Convocation council.

Report of committee on necrology, by C. W. Bardeen, editor *School bulletin*, Syracuse, chairman. Name, position, age and date of death were read. The notices are printed in full in the necrology of the year.

Memorial prayer by Rev. A. E. Main, president Alfred university.

World's recent progress in education.

Prin. J. E. RUSSELL, Cascadilla school, Ithaca.

Annual reports on specific topics.

Examinations.

J. R. PARSONS, jr, director of examinations.

Recent trend of science teaching.

Prof. JOHN F. WOODHULL, Teachers college, New York.

Classics and modern languages.

Prin. D. C. FARR, Glens Falls academy.

Credits, honors and marking system.

Prin. A. C. HILL, Cook academy, Havana.

Discussed by Prof. MAURICE PERKINS, Union college.

Pres. M. WOOLSEY STRYKER, Hamilton college.

*Recess 12.30 p. m.*

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**Wednesday afternoon, July 5, 3.10 p. m.**

Educational legislation: paper.

Senator JAMES T. EDWARDS, principal McDonogh school,  
Baltimore, Md.

Higher education and the state: paper.

Regent CHARLES E. FITCH, Rochester.

Popular expediency of state aid to intermediate education.

Hon. JOHN DE WITT WARNER, M. C.

Higher education in state constitutions.

Pres. JOHN F. CROWELL, Trinity college, N. C.

Relations of the state to secondary and higher education:  
grounds on which state aid is given to academies, high schools  
and libraries. General discussion of the afternoon's topics.

Prin. A. C. HILL, Cook academy, Havana.

Prin. O. B. RHODES, Adams collegiate institute.

Senator JAMES T. EDWARDS.

Sup't JOHN KENNEDY, Batavia, N. Y.

*Recess 5.40 p. m.*

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**Wednesday evening, July 5, 8.20 p. m.**

State universities and the churches..

Prof. RICHARD T. ELY, University of Wisconsin.

Coordination in education for men and for women.

Pres. CHARLES F. THWING, Western Reserve university.

Discussion by Prin. A. C. HILL, Cook academy, Havana.

University reception in state library 9.30-11 p. m.

**Thursday morning, July 6, 9.45 a. m.**

Vice-Chanc. DOANE, presiding.

Resolutions of sympathy with Dr N. T. Clarke, *see* p. 243

Annual reports on specific topics.

Teachers' tenure of office.

Prin. C. T. R. SMITH, Lansingburg academy.

Pedagogy.

Prin. ROLAND S. KEYSER, Middleburg academy.

Women's higher education.

Prin. HENRY WHITE CALLAHAN, Kingston academy.

Educational exhibit at the world's fair.

Hon. A. S. DRAPER.

Ex-Prin. ELISHA CURTISS, Sodus academy.

Pres. J. G. SCHURMAN, Cornell university.

Sec. MELVIL DEWEY.

Would the establishment of a national university at Washington promote the best interests of higher education in America?  
Discussion.

Dr EMILY L. GREGORY, Barnard college.

Pres. J. G. SCHURMAN, Cornell university.

Memory in mathematical teaching.

Prof. J. E. OLIVER, Cornell university.

Educational value of the study of the English Bible.

Pres. A. E. MAIN, Alfred university.

The teaching spirit.

Prin. W. K. WICKES, Syracuse high school.

Question box: Should the March examination be omitted?

Sec. MELVIL DEWEY.

Prin. D. C. FARR, Glens Falls.

Prof. H. S. WHITE, Cornell university.

*Recess 12.30 p. m.*

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**Thursday afternoon, July 6, 3 p. m.**

Study of English.

HAMILTON W. MARIE, editor *Outlook*.

Sup't SHERMAN WILLIAMS, Glens Falls.

English in elementary schools.

Sup't M. J. MICHAEL, Rome, N. Y.

Sup't W. R. PRENTICE, Hornellsville, N. Y.

English in secondary schools.

Prof. J. M. HART, Cornell university.

Prof. C. H. THURBER, Colgate university.

Prof. CHARLES H. J. DOUGLASS, Brooklyn institute.

Prin. MARCELLUS OAKLEY, Little Falls academy.

Prin. W. P. THOMSON, Auburn high school.

English in colleges.

Brother AZARIAS, De La Salle institute, New York.

University study of English.

Prof. F. H. STODDARD, University of the city of New York.

*Recess 5 p. m.*

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### Thursday evening

Annual convocation dinner at Kenmore hotel, 7-11 p. m.,  
Pres. J. G. Schurman presiding. After-dinner speeches by H. W.  
Mabie, Pres. C: F. Thwing, Bro. Azarias, Pres. J. M. Taylor,  
Miss Ella Weed, Pres. J: F. Crowell, Prof. F. H. Stoddard,  
Regent T. Guilford Smith, Prof. I: F. Russell, C: W: Bardeen.

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### Friday, July 7, 9.30 a. m.

Should professional schools admit on lower requirements than  
colleges?

Prof. CHARLES A. COLLIN, Cornell university.

Discussion.

Sec. MELVIL DEWEY.

Prof. DANIEL MARTIN, Rutgers female college, New York.

Prof. ISAAC FRANKLIN RUSSELL, University of the city of New  
York.

W. R. SPOONER, Eclectic medical college.

Hon. ANDREW S. DRAPER.

Pres. J. G. SCHURMAN, Cornell university.

Should special academic courses be offered in preparation for  
professional schools?

Prof. J. NEWTON FIERO, Albany law school.

Prin. FRANCIS J. CHENEY, Cortland normal school.

Prof. ACHSAH M. ELY, Vassar college.

Pres. JOHN F. CROWELL, Trinity college, N. C.

Dean G. W. BOSKOWITZ, M. D., Eclectic medical college, New York.

Bishop WILLIAM CROSWELL DOANE.

Prof. C: A. COLLIN, Cornell university.

Should the March regents' examination be discontinued?

Prin. E. J. PECK, Owego.

Prin. IRA H. LAWTON, Nyack.

Pres. J. M. TAYLOR, Vassar college.

Prin. C. T. R. SMITH, Lansingburg academy.

Hon. ANDREW S. DRAPER.

Prin. D. C. FARR, Glens Falls academy.

Prin. J. C. NORRIS, Canandaigua academy.

Sup't SHERMAN WILLIAMS, Glens Falls.

Prin. MARCELLUS OAKLEY, Little Falls academy.

Prin. R. S. KEYSER, Middleburg academy.

Sec. MELVIL DEWEY.

Summer schools and their relations to academies, colleges and universities.

Rev. JOHN F. MULLANY, Academy of the Sacred Heart, Syracuse

*Adjourned 1.30 p. m.*

## SUMMARY OF ACTION

### Resolutions

**Sympathy with Dr N. T. Clarke.** Thursday morning Prin. D. C. Farr said: We miss from the floor of this convocation one who has been in attendance at every previous meeting, Dr Noah Clarke of Canandaigua. Owing to ill health he is unable to be here and may never meet with us again. I move a committee of three to draft resolutions of sympathy. Voted.

The chair appointed Principals D. C. Farr, J. C. Norris and O. B. Rhodes.

On Friday the committee reported and convocation adopted the following:

*Whereas*, Noah T. Clarke, Ph. D., of Canandaigua, is for the first time in the history of the convocation absent from our meeting on account of illness,

*Resolved*, That we tender to him our sincere expression of regret and sympathy, with the hope that his life may be spared for many years, and that we again may meet him in the councils of the convocation.

**March examination.** The principals' conference called Thursday reported the following:

*Resolved*, That the continuance of both the January and March examinations is indispensable to the further success of the system of regents' examinations in schools outside of the larger cities; and that the abolition of the March examination would seriously imperil the usefulness if not the continued existence of the smaller academies and departments of union schools.

After the discussion it was unanimously voted to refer the resolutions to the three councils, each to examine it independently and report to the regents in writing.

**Preliminary education for professional degrees.** After the papers and discussions it was unanimously

*Resolved*, As the judgment of the University convocation of the state of New York, that every degree-conferring institution in the state should be governed by the rules adopted by the regents that their academic diploma or its equivalent should be required as a minimum of preliminary education of every candidate for any degree which such institution may confer.

**Thanks to Sup't Delehanty.** Sec. Melvil Dewey said: you have noticed that in our rooms and anterooms our comfort and convenience have been provided for by the new superintendent of public buildings more carefully than at any previous convocation. It seems to me fitting to recognize this efficiency on the part of a public officer whose duties are singularly difficult, and I move a vote of thanks to Superintendent Delehanty for his courteous attentions during our sessions. Voted unanimously.

### Appointments

Convocation council for 1894: Sup't Henry P. Emerson, Buffalo; Pres. A. B. Hervey, St Lawrence university; Prin. W. K. Wickes, Syracuse high school; Pres. W. L. Hervey, Teachers college; Bro. Edward, La Salle institute.

College council for the academic year 1893-94: Pres. J. M. Taylor, Vassar college, Chanc. C. N. Sims, Syracuse university, Pres. M. W. Stryker, Hamilton college, Pres. J. G. Schurman, Cornell university, Prof. N. M. Butler, Columbia college.

The chancellor announced that Prin. James E. Russell had been commissioned by the University to visit educational institutions and departments in Europe and to report on their organi-



zation administration and methods, and that the regents wished any members of the convocation or of the University to feel free to write to the office about any special topic on which they wished fuller information such as Prin. Russell might obtain.

A true record.

ATTEST :

MELVIL DEWEY  
*Secretary*

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## ADDRESSES, PAPERS, REPORTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

**Chanc. Upson** — As representing the regents of the University, I am happy to bid welcome to all here to-day ; to those teachers and friends of education in our state who are engaged in active work or have enriched by their gifts the 507 institutions of learning connected under that appropriate name, the University of the State of New York. We welcome also in this Columbian year any who are here present from other states or foreign countries. But at this our 31st convocation, we have the pleasure of greeting an unusual guest, the governor of the state. This we now do, expressing not only our profound respect for his official position, but our high appreciation of his personal character and beneficent life. I have the pleasure now to introduce to the convocation the governor of the state of New York, the Hon. Roswell Pettabone Flower, LL. D., and last, but not least, a regent of the University.

**Gov. Flower** — *Mr Chancellor, ladies and gentlemen :* It has been my pleasure to visit numerous educational institutions, most of them in this state, but this is the first time I have had the pleasure of visiting this one. I may well call this a New York institution, because I think no other state in the union has one like it. You come here every year under the auspices of the regents of the University from academies, high schools, normal schools, colleges and universities to consult together for the benefit of each other and to interchange ideas on educational subjects. No more dignified body representing so much intelligence and learning meets annually in any part of the world. The teachers of New York are a noble host, more essential to

the state than the national guard, and when assembled as now from all parts of the state, representing all kinds of schools, in one great effort for the diffusion of knowledge and the spread of truth, they form an army of workers that will put ignorance and materialism to an ignominious flight. On behalf of the state government, representing its administrative department, I bid you a hearty welcome to the capital and to this chamber. I am sure I speak the sentiments of my associates in the administrative offices, when I assure you of our earnest wish for your cooperation in advancing the educational interests of our state. Our educational machinery is unsurpassed; our liberality is almost prodigal. Let us see that the opportunities which these two essential factors present are taken advantage of in producing the wisest results. Let us remember that all learning is vain which does not tend to perfect human character and advance civilization.

The state is not justified in taxing its inhabitants millions of dollars every year for the scholarly advancement of a few of its citizens, but this taxation and expenditure must be employed in making learning democratic; to make better citizens of us all and more devoted patriots. To the teachers of our youth we must look for these results. Do not let your pupils make learning their master but their slave. Do not let them worship it but teach them to regard it as the servant of their highest comfort and success in life. This is what distinguishes the learning of past and present ages, that it is not for the few but for the many; that it is not an ornament nor an accomplishment, but a practical requirement in all our daily thoughts and struggles. We must adapt our teaching therefore to these changed conditions, realizing that it is to reach and permeate all classes of people, and that it is worse than wasted if it does not help every man in his daily occupation and make him a better citizen.

I am glad to bear testimony from knowledge gained by personal visits throughout the state to our different institutions of learning that is what our schools are trying to do and I hope it will continue. You are the workers in this modern movement. You will find keen sympathy from the legislative and administrative branches of the government. Your ideas and ours may not always agree. The tendency of your lives and thoughts may lead you too much toward the theoretical, while our tendency

may be too much toward the practical; but we can not ever be very far apart in our sympathies and aims, and between extreme views on either side we ought to reach a very desirable middle course of effort.

I am glad to welcome you here and to get acquainted with you. It is a good thing for the people to be acquainted with their official servants and an equally good thing for the official servants to be acquainted with their masters, the people. In government it is alienation rather than familiarity which breeds contempt. We get the advantages of your ideas and know better how to suit your wishes. On the other hand you perhaps begin to appreciate that there are a great many people to please in as large a state as this and you are a little more tolerant toward those who have to do the pleasing. I shall not detain you longer, but hope to have the pleasure of seeing you individually and grasping you by the hand.

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## ANNUAL ADDRESS

BY CHANCELLOR ANSON JUDD UPSON

You will permit me to say that I regard it a very high honor to appear before you to-day for the first time as the official head of the University and as your presiding officer. To me the honor is all the greater because in my official relation the regents have for the first time thus recognized and honored the teachers' profession. It has seemed to me therefore that on this occasion I should state some of the educational maxims in which I believe, even at the risk of apparent egotism.

The late Norman McLeod, a distinguished minister of the established church of Scotland, made his first professional visit to an aged Scotch woman soon after his settlement over his congregation in a rural district. After some conversation, she said: "Ah, weel, I see your manners and your talk are weel enough, but what I want to know is whether you can state the sax foondamentals. Give me those." A political candidate is elected on a platform. A minister is called by a church, or ought to be, because of his creed, so, in my judgment, the presiding officer of your state university ought to have his educational confession of faith. He ought to be able to state his confession. He ought to believe in it, *ipsissima verba*.

I believe of course, in the familiar definition that education is the development of the individual, physically, mentally and morally. Education is training by physical, mental and moral gymnastics. Education is the acquirement of knowledge, elementary and advanced, and, so far as may be, complete. Such education you and I have known to be acquired sometimes without the aid of books and professional teachers. Such an education has been acquired at home, and afterwards in life by contact and conflict with men and things. We honor such examples for their manly and womanly ambition and courage.

But ordinarily, education is and should be given by teachers in schools such as we represent, elementary, academic, collegiate, special. These last for training in special subjects are often combined in a university. I believe that to every man and woman should be given, as far as possible, training in these different schools, successively and in the order named: elementary, academic, collegiate, special. If I had a hundred grandsons or granddaughters I would educate them every one in this order, if I could. Divide your education if you will. Call it primary, secondary, general and special, but no division is necessary. All are essentially one. In the words of the late Chancellor Curtis, "higher education is not a different education. It is a question of degree, not of kind. Higher education is only more education." So I believe; and the more of it the better; the more of it, the more intelligent and self-controlled, the more well balanced, the more learned, the more practical and successful man or woman will the boy or girl become; the more of it, the higher will be their purposes, the better their character.

This education as I believe, consists of course, first of all, in the acquirement of knowledge in its leading departments: science, literature, philosophy, history, both elementary and advanced. It consists, of course, in making our English language truly and thoroughly our own, by understanding its derivation and structure, by gaining the ability to speak and write English with correctness, elegance and taste. It should, if possible, include a knowledge of French, German, Spanish and Italian. In a word this education consists in making useful information of as many kinds as possible so much our own that we shall transform it into true knowledge.

I believe also in gymnastics in education ; gymnastic training for the body, athletics ; I believe in gymnastic training for the mind through linguistic studies, Latin and Greek galore. The more difficult the Latin and Greek perhaps the better, thus training the attention, the judgment, the power of comprehension, the memory, the taste. I believe in Greek. The study of Greek may be distasteful at first ; a better acquaintance will make it attractive, even delightful. And if this be not the result I believe that a study which demands an irksome attention often produces the best mental and moral results, Herbert Spencer to the contrary notwithstanding.

I believe also in mathematical study as a mental gymnastic, as a means of gaining the power of fixed attention, concentration, discrimination, accuracy, logical powers, inexorable and controlling.

So I believe in the study of natural sciences, not to gain useful knowledge only, but as Prof. T. B. Stowell has well said, because they are adapted to train the mind to close observation and deliberate attention, supplying also material and training for instructive reasoning ; exciting curiosity and training to systematic research ; and as a means of ethical instruction, by their exactness fostering a sincere love of truth.

Besides, I believe in what may be called a gymnastic training for the moral character, so that the scholar shall not only have committed to memory in school and college and university the precepts of morality, but shall have practised obedience, truthfulness, unselfishness, self-sacrifice, until verily, when he is graduated he shall have become a Washington or Lincoln in his love of truth and willingness to serve.

Is there any better way than by this gaining general knowledge and by training at the primary school, high school, academy, college and university, is there an better way to gain by the time you are 20 years old that education, the object of which Regent Depew describes as the ability to do difficult things easily and irksome things cheerfully ? I believe there can be no more feasible method.

And I am gratified to notice that public opinion is approving and confirming this educational creed by the patronage and generous development of our schools, high and low, by the largely

increasing numbers who are crowding our educational halls, by the munificent gifts in countless sums with which our rich men are endowing them. This careful patronage, these scholars in immense numbers, these gifts in immense sums to well established schools are overthrowing, sweeping away common theoretical objections to what some are pleased to call obsolete methods.

I believe in the American system of education. We ought to be cheered by the evident fact that education in this country is rapidly systemizing itself. I would not abolish, you would not abolish our American system, nor destroy any of its constituent elements. Let the common school continue to give with the utmost thoroughness to the American people their primary education. Let the academy and high school prepare men and women for college or for their work in life, if they can take no further education. Let the college continue this academic work to a higher degree, laying a broad foundation in the acquirements and training of every graduate, a strong, broad platform upon which he or she may build the superstructure of life. Then let the university, by its special methods and courses of study and practice prepare these college graduates for their special work in the world.

I would have no boy or girl enter the academy or high school without thorough primary education. I would have none enter the college without equally thorough academic training. And none should enter a university for special education without a well earned collegiate degree, or its equivalent. I believe the time is coming rapidly when every true university in this country will volunteer or be forced to limit its instruction to graduates. Have no fear that the university will crush the college. The time will soon come, if it has not already, when the university will be convinced that no student is fit to begin his education in a special course of university instruction without previous collegiate training.

I fully agree with our superintendent of public instruction when he says, "each step in the progress of the pupil should be a complete one, so that no matter how short may be that pupil's term at school, the instruction imparted will be distinct and complete in itself." And during the long period of life com-

I believe in the recitation method and the use of text-books, if possible, rather than lectures principally. I know it is the fashion to revile this recitation system. They say that lectures are, for the teacher, more dignified and scholarly; that recitations are, for the teacher, drudgery. They say that lectures give to the student room for a manly independence and freedom of thought and a wider knowledge of the subject, so that his knowledge is not limited to that of the author of his text-book or his opinions controlled by those of his author. But I can not see why the knowledge of the lecturer should not limit that of his hearer, and the opinions of the lecturer control those of his hearer quite as much as those of the author of a text-book control his students. If the scholar study his subject in connection with his text-book, he will gain wide knowledge enough and practise independent thought.

This country has never known a better or more successful teacher of the law than the late Professor Theodore William Dwight of Columbia college. He was successful because he was not a mere lecturer, but trained his classes, using legal text-books, comparing the views of one author with another in the recitation room, illustrating principles by cases, discussing points with each student, using largely the seminar method. All this may have been undignified, quite unscholarly. A stately professor — shall I say a lazy professor — would have been disgusted with such drudgery. But our answer to all such frivolous objections is the fact that for nearly 40 years the Dwight method of legal instruction was sanctioned by the legal profession as legitimate and the best, and approved by the verdict of the public as a most successful method.

By the recitation system the student makes his knowledge of the subject emphatically his own. He discovers his own knowledge or ignorance and the teacher discovers the knowledge or ignorance of his scholar, and can help him, stimulate him. Listening to lectures only, he may carry with him his notes, but they are not truly his own, a part of himself. You remember the familiar story of the German student, who listened to university lectures for four years, taking full notes. On returning homeward, at the close of his course, with his notes in his trunk, he lost his trunk and was compelled to return and repeat his



I believe also in the familiar maxim that "the teacher makes the school," and still more implicitly the statement of Superintendent Draper that "the spirit of the teacher makes the spirit of the school." We remember the character of our teachers quite as distinctly as that they taught us certain facts. Few of us associate with the facts we know or the principles in which we believe the name of the teacher who taught us those facts or principles. Yet who can forget the character of the teachers of his or her early life. It has impressed itself upon us. It forms a part of our life. Consciously and unconsciously it acts upon us as a constant example, an incentive or a warning. The longer I live the more profoundly I believe that the characteristics of a true teacher are the characteristics of the Christian. They are coordinate. When you name the traits of one, you name the traits of the other. Let me name to you the characteristics which St Paul calls "the fruits of the spirit." Is not every one of them a characteristic, ethical quality of the ideal teacher: "love, joy, peace, long suffering, gentleness, goodness, faith, meekness, temperance."

I would honor all my teachers, and I hope I am not singular in remembering with sincere affection those miracles of patience and perseverance who taught me the rudiments in primary schools. You will agree with me in having no sympathy with those who sneer at the teachers who helped us up the first steps of the ladder, while they glorify those who raised us to the top.

You will pardon me if I repeat on this occasion with the highest honor the name of one of the best, yes, the very best teacher of my earlier life, the principal of the Utica academy from 1838 to 1841, Mancus M. Backus. He was a graduate of Columbia, a protégé of Prof. Charles Anthon, an enthusiast in classical study and instruction, a lover of good learning, an honest teacher, whose character was as genuine as his attainments. He made us boys love the truth and despise shams, and we loved him for that. He made us work as we never worked before, and we respected him for that at the time. And in our later life when our early educational work was over, we loved to tell him how grateful we felt. And now that the Lord has called him to a higher service, we cherish his memory with profound affection.

Yes, it is the teacher who makes the school. Yes, the spirit of the teacher inspires the scholar.

I am not one of those who believe that age is the only test of truth, neither do I believe that novelty is the only test of truth. You may ask, who does? But I read many an author and listen to many a speaker, who if he can fasten upon a proposition or method the sneering epithet old, assumes that his work of demolition is done! Alas! alas! for our familiar text books! Alas! alas! for the propositions of Euclid and the maxims of Plato! I am antiquated enough still to believe that an educational method which has been successfully used for generations is therefore all the more likely to be the true method. I am antiquated enough still to say that an educational principle which has been believed and advocated and practised for a thousand years is more likely to be true than one just now affirmed. A coin that has been current for a hundred years is less likely to be counterfeit. All of us believe in progress, but why blast away the rocks of experience in order to build our new structure upon the shifting sands of theory? Let us in our educational methods be conservative progressives. Let us endeavor to imitate the example of our Lord who never uttered words that describe more truly his own life, or words, in my judgment, more expressive of the whole truth in the practical subject we are considering, than when he said "I come not to destroy but to fulfil." I come not to put an end to, but to complete.

All my brother regents of the University may not agree with my educational notions, but we are agreed, I am sure, in assuring every teacher here present that whether he labors in the high places of his profession or in more secluded yet no less honorable positions, we sympathize with him and appreciate his invaluable work.

As one of the members of the board longest in service, the very longest with the exception of our deservedly honored Regent Townsend, who last month, with invincible vitality, celebrated the 60th anniversary of his graduation at Williams — "*serus in cælum redeas*;" as one of the board longest in service permit me to say that the regents have only gratification to express from our knowledge of the fact that at last public opinion no longer considers our board a remote and unpractical body.

We have a very dignified title. I would not have it changed. But most of us are really indifferent to our dignity, not too sen-

sitive about our honor. We can say of it as Falstaff said of honor, "If it comes it comes unlooked for, and there's the end on't." We have no desire to be as we have been, accused of being a grand and exclusive body like the Sanhedrin. We would be recognized simply as practical men of affairs, as most of us are, earnestly and practically interested in the educational work of the state. It has been the fashion in some of our historical addresses to name the deceased members of the board "illustrious men." I would not criticize unfavorably the use of this expression. Some of them, like George Clinton and John Jay, in their public character and public service were illustrious, and some of our living members will be truly named illustrious in the history of this state. But most of us, nearly all of us, are not ambitious to be ranked with Julius Cæsar, but rather are truly as Antony said he was "as you all know, a plain blunt man, and only speak right on." Besides, I believe the time has passed when, as a board, we need to be placed or to place ourselves upon the defensive. For myself, I am nauseatingly tired of continually giving reasons for our existence. The immense work that is done by the board demonstrates the necessity of its existence. I make no apology here for speaking of the worth of the University. I have a right to tell tales out of school about what is familiar to many of you.

Under the leadership of our enthusiastic, indefatigable and omnipresent Secretary and his competent and most industrious staff and their assistants, the work of what we call "the office" is making itself felt in the remotest corners of the state. This work during the past year has been no failure. No longer accepted by the educational public as a matter of course, unnoticed as insignificant or merely formal, it has been frequently criticized. This criticism is, in my judgment, a cheering and hopeful sign. The official supervision exercised by the office proves itself to be no small and unimportant matter. During the last year 484 educational institutions in this state, teaching nearly 64,000 men and women have expended, with the official knowledge and approval of the board, in buildings, grounds, apparatus, libraries, museums, salaries, prizes and gifts or loans to students more than \$7,000,000. By means of this supervision, fraudulent institutions, and there have been some, have been discovered and

abolished. Unwise educational incorporations have been prevented. Critics may say what they please about regents' examinations. Every fair criticism is welcome and will be candidly and carefully considered. Be assured there is no lack of criticism. For some, these examinations are too rigorous; for others, too easy; for some, too common place; for others, too technical.

To all such inevitable criticism, a sufficient answer is found in the increasing use of this method by the educational public of this state. Twenty seven years ago these examinations began. Within 15 years, the subjects examined upon have increased from 20 to 68. Twelve years ago, 45,420 answer papers were written and 43 per cent accepted; last year, 278,907 were written and 56 per cent were accepted. The medical and legal professions have indorsed the method as an efficient means of protecting the public from quacks and pettifoggers.

Not all of us have yet a superabounding faith in university extension. But we are more than willing to have the experiment tried. None of us would oppose or discourage the movement. Nobody approves the name, yet notwithstanding its misnomer, the progress of university extension during the past year has been more or less encouraging. There were 141 courses of lectures offered by 112 lecturers on 15 subjects. Twenty six centers are established in this state, taking 23 examinations this year. The progress and prospects of the library department are most inspiring. Not only has our growing state library been made exceedingly useful to the people and our library school prospered, but we may be reasonably assured that the shameful neglect of libraries by towns and school districts will not much longer disgrace our state. I can hardly believe it, but since last October only, 180 different places in this state have awakened to the vital importance of this matter, and by correspondence have shown their desire to establish libraries. Twenty five charters have been issued, 17 traveling libraries have encouraged beginners, and 41 libraries have been helpfully visited by the head of the department. All this within nine months. Let every lover of books in our state thank God and take courage.

And where is the educator in all this broad land who does not recognize in the work of this annual convocation for 31 years a most useful educational force?

The exhibit of our University at Chicago has enlightened educational ignorance and honored our state.

These educational statistics are to me impressive. These figures and facts are very significant; yet compared with the reality, how bare and dry they are! They no more express the real influence of our educational work upon the people of this state than do the daily scientific records of the barometer and psychrometer and thermometer convey to our minds an adequate picture of the sunshine, the verdure and the bloom, the flowers and the fruitage, that in this glorious summer cover this imperial state.

My fellow teachers of New York, let us use these educational methods. Let us improve them. Wherever they are wrong, let us make them right. Let us be loyal to our own state, loyal to our constituency. Let us make all our schools so perfect that there shall not be in any mind a single doubt that they are all that they can be.

Let us encourage each other not by depreciating our colleges and schools. The college teachers too often deplore "the fact that there are no secondary schools in this state worthy of the name, that a boy must go to some school outside the commonwealth of New York for the best training. The teachers of secondary schools denounce in turn the colleges for their low requirements and work. We cast discredit upon each other. A spirit of mutual helpfulness between the schools and colleges is needful."

Let every one of us be truly altruistic. The word is comparatively modern, but the spirit advocated and inspired by it is as old as our Lord Jesus Christ.

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## COMMITTEE REPORTS

**Convocation council.** In the absence of Prof. H. S. White, chairman, Sec. Dewey presented as the report of the Convocation council the printed program, and said: The system of annual reports presented here was suggested very late in the season and approved heartily by the various councils. They have been started in most cases with only a single week's notice. The proposition is that beginning next year we shall try the experiment of having certain prominent questions like exami-

nations, degrees, electives, classics, modern languages, woman's education, etc. in the hands of special reporters. During the year, they will watch the progress of the subjects in educational literature and in official reports of all states and countries, and at the next convocation will on the first day present a 10-minute summary as a basis for future discussion. These are to be introduced each year by a general survey of the trend of education for the year. This feature was decided on so late that it was impossible for the reporters to get anything from abroad, so the first complete illustration of the new plan will be the reports of next year.

**Necrology committee.** C. W. Bardeen, editor *School bulletin*, Syracuse, read in abstract the report (printed in full in memoirs) which was adopted by a rising vote.

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## WORLD'S RECENT PROGRESS IN EDUCATION

PRIN. JAMES E. RUSSELL, CASCADILLA SCHOOL, ITHACA

Progress in educational thought and the accomplishment of educational reforms, depend quite as much on material prosperity and political expediency as on a wider acceptance of high ideals. One must know the commercial conditions of a country, must be familiar with its political history and tendencies, before he can estimate the value of accomplished fact or venture a suggestion as to future probabilities. Let me say, therefore, that while the program assigns me unrestricted freedom, personal limitations confine me to a humbler field. I must express, too, my obligations to current periodical literature, which, though not always reliable, has the advantage over official reports of not being ancient history when published.

The present era of peace in Europe has been marked by increased severity of commercial competition and unsurpassed development of natural resources. The intense rivalry between nations, influenced by the tardy acknowledgment of the superiority of an intelligent soldiery, has hastened many educational reforms. That these reforms should be pedagogically desirable in all respects could not be expected. But the ability to derive

general good from partisan enactments is peculiarly the art of the teacher.

France is suffering from inconsiderate and hasty action. But education for its own sake is getting to rank with hatred of Germany as a controlling motive in educational affairs. Clerical domination grows less oppressive. A more kindly spirit is manifest in the discipline of the secondary schools.<sup>1</sup> The hours for work have been reduced. Excessive military drill is giving way to athletics.<sup>2</sup> University reorganization has been discussed. For a year, however, small progress has been made. The political crisis is paramount (1-10).

Reports from Spain,<sup>3</sup> Portugal, Belgium,<sup>4</sup> Italy<sup>5</sup> (10- 3) and Russia<sup>6</sup> are not reassuring. Teachers, far too few, overworked, underpaid, if paid at all; illiteracy doubtfully decreasing, and poor prospect of any considerable part of the heavy drain from taxation being turned to educational purposes. Far more encouraging news comes from Norway and Sweden, from Austria (14) and Greece,<sup>7</sup> from South Africa<sup>8</sup> and the British possessions in India<sup>9</sup> and the South Seas,<sup>10</sup> but especially is Japan to be congratulated on her efforts to provide educational facilities that shall be at once distinctly patriotic, national and comprehensive.

The recent movements in education in Germany are of peculiar interest. When the Emperor proclaimed at the Berlin School Conference, December, 1890, the inadequacy of the schools to meet the practical requirements of the nation, his words created a profound sensation not only in Prussia, but throughout the

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**References.** Superior numbers refer to foot-notes on the page. Numbers in curves, thus (—), refer to books and articles listed in the appendix.

1 *M. Dupuy*, J. ed. L. Sep 91: 472.

2 J. ed. L. June 91: 306.

3 ——— June 92: 306.

4 *Richter's Jahresbericht*, 1891: 10.

5 *Ed. rev.* Mar 93: 304.

——— Apr 94: 416.

*Ed. news*, Mar 11, 93: 173.

J. ed. L. Apr 91: 210.

——— Oct 92: 558.

6 *Ed. news*, May 6: 306.

7 J. ed. L. Oct 92: 558.

8 ——— Sep 92: 471-73.

9 ——— Nov 92: 590.

10 ——— Feb 93: 130.



world (34). The school system, the pride of Germany for nearly a century, must be reformed (15-50)!

The task was begun by the government. The minister of culture, Herr von Gossler, introduced a bill for the revision of the public school laws. He would place the lower schools under local control with state supervision. The clergy were to have seats in the local boards that they might the better superintend the religious teaching. The Catholics saw in the measure a blow at the supremacy of the church. Without Catholic support it could not become a law. On March 1, 1891, the minister was dismissed and the bill abandoned. Within a year Count Zedlitz, the new minister, made another proposition (28-29). The demands of the center were conceded. Instead of growing democratic, the school system was to become more bureaucratic. The clergy were to have a controlling voice in the selection of teachers, and the schools were to be separated according to the religious beliefs of the children. The bill was strongly supported by the chancellor, but Prussia was not willing to accept so radical a measure even at the risk of fostering atheism (31). Way was soon made for another minister, and, although he has been in office more than a year he has made no serious attempt to repeat the experiment of his predecessors.<sup>1</sup> The bill which was introduced last December, has for its object "the improvement of elementary education and the raising of teachers' salaries."<sup>2</sup> This proposition, because less radical, doubtless will meet with success in the new parliament.

Not without some misgivings the Berlin conference framed a series of resolutions looking to the reform of the secondary schools (35). It was resolved (*a*) that the *Realgymnasium* — that cross between the *Gymnasium* and the *Realschule* — should no longer exist; (*b*) that over pressure be reduced by a diminution of hours devoted to classics, and that the German language and history be studied instead; (*c*) that the bulk of the work be done in school; (*d*) that the teacher should have a more thorough pedagogic training and a higher social status; (*e*) that teachers should be form masters rather than specialists, and that they should give more heed to physical culture; (*f*) that the existing

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1 J. ed. L. Jan 93: 22.

2 Ed. rev. Apr 93: 415.

social distinctions between *Gymnasien* and *Realschulen* be overcome, and that the state should not discriminate in admission to its examinations.<sup>1</sup> The committee, appointed to carry out these reforms, issued a new program of instruction early in 1892. It has been in operation a year with only indifferent success.<sup>2</sup>

The *Realgymnasien* exist and are growing stronger (31). The first decade of their existence has been stormy and uncertain, and despite the commission's decree many prominent and able men in Germany are determined that Latin shall find a place in a curriculum otherwise devoted to modern subjects.

Dr Paulsen sums up the workings of the new program as follows: — "The reform of 1892 had its origin in a wish to adapt the work of the higher schools more closely to the demands of the present. As this aim is one whose importance is universally admitted, criticism can apply only to the means employed. The most important changes are (a) a broadening of the course in the *Realschule*, so that boys leaving school at 16 may have a more complete and symmetrical development; (b) the opening of the *Hochschulen* and certain university courses to graduates of the *Oberrealschulen* without Latin in their curriculum. As to the wisdom of this movement opinions differ and I myself entertain doubts; (c) the freeing of the classical *Gymnasien* from their bondage to Latin composition and the increased prominence, in fact the preeminence, given to the study of German.

Though most of these movements are in the right direction the reform is not wholly satisfactory. The long-standing demands of the *Realschulmännerverein* that the *Realgymnasien* and the *Hochgymnasien* be placed on the same basis remains unfulfilled and is rendered more difficult of fulfilment than ever. The standard of the *Realgymnasien* has been lowered by weakening the work in Latin. What I regret is not the increased importance given to the *Oberrealschulen* but the impression created that

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1 J. ed. L. Feb 91: 124.

2 The following theses were placed before a meeting of German school masters (*Allgemeiner deutscher Realschulmännerverein*, April 4-5, '93) by Dr Paulsen; after discussion they were unanimously approved. (1) "The new curricula, in their general tendency to adjust the higher institutions of learning to the needs of the present time, are to be regarded as a delightful step forward. (2) Especially is the progress in the Latin-less schools in the interest both of the people and of all forms of *Gymnasien*; yet the arbitrary conversion of schools where Latin is taught into schools without Latin is not to be approved. (3) The *Realgymnasium* remains an essential connecting link between the classical *Gymnasien* and the *Oberrealschulen*."

the *Realgymnasien* have served their purpose and been superseded by these schools. The reform has proved so unfavorable to the *Realgymnasien* that they must now succumb to pressure or make a struggle for life. The *Realschulmännerverein* has voted to adopt the latter course and I believe in their ultimate success.

Certain indications point to a higher development of the *Realgymnasien* in the future, chiefly the changed relations between them and the *Hochgymnasien*. These schools have been driven over to the opposition and the dissatisfaction among the leaders has manifested itself strongly, as when Director Jäger said at Cologne, that, though the *Realschulen* were now victorious, another such victory would ruin them, and Director Zahn-Mörs that the present position of the *Hochgymnasien* is impossible, and that a demand will be made for a revision of the regulations as to ancient languages. Oberlehrer Caner-Kiel also regards the reform as a failure, saying that it has overturned the established order of things without doing any constructive work whatever. This he attributes to the superabundance of reformers. Much other testimony might be adduced to the same general effect, that an impossible task has been imposed on the *Hochgymnasien*, and revision is imperative. I am convinced that the provisions of these men will prove correct and that the *Gymnasien* will, after all, endure longer than the reform of 1892.

All these causes are producing a strong feeling that will result in a demand for revision, and the outcome will be favorable to all classes of *Gymnasien*. The *Hochgymnasien* now see that it will be greatly to their advantage to be allied with and complemented by the *Realgymnasien*. The restrictions and impediments under which both classes of schools now suffer will destroy their old rivalry and unite them in a common cause." *Central Organ f. d. Interessen d. Realschulwesens*. June 93.

The present minister of culture favors their retention and has promised to do all in his power to further their interests<sup>1</sup> (36-38). In other respects the leading resolution has been more successful. The attendance for the year at the *Gymnasien* has been less by 2500; the *Realschulen* have increased in number from 65 to 87 and the gain in attendance is 3800.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Päd. Arch. May 93: 290.

<sup>2</sup> ———: 287.

The overpressure has not been relieved. The time gained by cutting off Latin and Greek composition is more than filled by work in German and history. The minimum number of hours required of the teacher equals the maximum under the old program.<sup>1</sup> The supervision during the extra study hours may be desirable, but "it makes unmerciful demands on the teachers' time and strength."<sup>2</sup> The quality of professional training for teachers has improved.<sup>3</sup> Physical culture is gaining.<sup>4</sup> The central committee for the promotion of athletic games reports that 15 courses for masters were held last year and six courses for mistresses with an attendance of 306 and 284, respectively. Public interest is so aroused that many towns voluntarily contribute to the support of these holiday courses. The *Gymnasium* is no longer the only gate to the university and to civil preferment.<sup>5</sup> The certificate of all schools with six year courses qualifies for the lower government positions and confers the privilege of one year's military service (26).

The new program is mainly destructive. An impossible task has been imposed on the classical schools. The endeavor both to meet the demands of modern culture and to maintain a high standard in Greek and Latin, proves too burdensome for the instructors. "All these causes," says Dr Paulsen, "are producing a strong feeling that will result in a demand for revision and the outcome will be favorable to all classes of *Gymnasien*" (47).

It is in Great Britain that we find the most hopeful signs of progress (51-71). The Free Education act (England) came into operation September 1, 1891 (52). The elementary schools, stimulated by the new code of 1890<sup>5</sup>, have entered on a period of beneficent activity hitherto unknown in England. A significant clause of the act, which gives to parents who wish for free education a right to demand it, took effect only last September, but so vigorously has the department enforced its provisions that 99 per cent of the primary schools are partially free and over 80

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1 Päd. Arch. May 93: 273-4.

2 ———: 284.

3 J. ed. L. Oct 92: 557.

4 Central Organ f. d. Interessen d. Realschulwesens. May 93: 432.

5 J. ed. L. Sep 92: 45.

per cent give entirely free tuition' (53-58). The new code allows great freedom of classification and discretion in choice of studies. It abolishes the old system of "payment by results"—which is everywhere deprecated as most vicious (61)—and substitutes therefor "a grant for each child presented, the grant to be graded according to the quality of the teaching." It is too soon to speak confidently of the new system, but the latest official report shows an increase during 1892 of 99 schools and of over 200,000 pupils on the rolls. The education grant was nearly £6,000,000, an increase of 62 per cent since 1890.<sup>2</sup>

1 a, Ed. news. May 13, 93: 313— "Over 15,000 schools in England and Wales are now entirely free. The children in free schools number 3,439,577, and the number paying fees varying from 1d. to 6d. a week is #49,991."

b, Ruling of Rt Hon A. Adland, vice-president of council of education: "It can not be too clearly and widely understood that, under the act, any and every parent in England and Wales, irrespective of any question as to his means, is entitled to claim completely free education for his children, and that it is the statutory duty of the department to see that free education is provided accordingly."

2 "The growth of the education grant during the past few years has been as follows:

Year ending 31st December, 1889.....	£3,629,787 10 6
Year ending 31st December, 1890....	3,676,540 18 5
Year ending 31st December, 1891.....	4,106,687 13 6
Year ending 31st December, 1892.....	5,966,516 3

In the next place we get the usual classification of grants according to denomination of recipients. From this table we learn that from 1889 to 31 December 1892, the sum of £70,118,688 18s. has been dispensed in the form of government grants. Church schools have received during these three and fifty years an aggregate of £35,177,561 6s. 5d., or over a half of the total expenditure, British and Wesleyan schools, £8,660,429 6s. 1d., Roman Catholic schools, £3,386,541 18s. 9d.; and board schools during a period covering the latter half of the half century in question, £17,075,666 6s. 6d."

#### SCHOOLS AND SCHOLARS IN 1890, 1891 AND 1892

DENOMINATIONS	Number of schools under separate management	Number of scholars for whom accommodation is provided	Number on rolls	Average attendance
Church of England schools .....	11,935	2,692,001	2,352,073	1,731,428
Wesleyan schools .....	530	216,590	173,990	131,528
Roman Catholic schools .....	967	354,788	268,089	202,060
British schools .....	1,888	405,491	329,008	251,747
Board schools .....	4,169	2,068,016	2,039,325	1,586,120
Totals, 1892 .....	19,634	5,730,888	5,037,402	3,863,986
Totals, 1891 .....	19,635	5,641,350	4,823,329	3,754,498
Totals, 1890 .....	19,498	5,566,507	4,626,560	3,729,327

From advance sheets of the Education blue book, 1892. The Schoolmaster, Apr. 29, 93: 790.

Twenty years ago Mr Matthew Arnold found on the continent a great international movement in education which was then "so wide and strong as to be fast growing irresistible," a movement whose object is best expressed by a clause in the constitution of the canton Zürich:—"the higher establishments for teaching shall be brought into organic connection with the popular school" (60). It is now actuating England. A better grade of elementary schools results; it next aspires to bring order out of the chaos which was noted 25 years ago and which to-day is characteristic of the secondary school system (59-60). Except for the great public schools and a few endowed grammar schools, the intermediate education of England is practically dependent on private venture (51). The payment of fees makes school attendance, beyond the elementary standards, almost impossible for the children of the poorer classes. Furthermore there is no organic union with the lower schools; each works independently. There has been no legislation of consequence since 1869. But let me quote the words of the present minister of education: "The country is slowly making up its mind that, whatever the wealthy part of the community may do, provision of a public kind shall be made for all those in the middle class or the working class who demand an education above the elementary schools, cheap, effective and close to their doors, with some public guarantee for its efficiency" (60:307).

It is fortunate for England that she can benefit from the interesting experiment now going on in Wales. The Intermediate Education act for Wales, 1881, is the first official recognition on the part of the government of "the need of systematic and organized provision of secondary schools by public money" (60:107). The act considers "intermediate education" to be all education above the elementary schools (60:120). In each county a committee of five is charged with the duty of inquiring into the state of secondary and technical education; they must submit to the central department a scheme for the organization and equipment of needed schools, and must determine whether or not there shall be a local tax for the purpose. The rate aid may not exceed a half-penny in the pound, but an imperial grant will be made to equal the local tax. These funds, with others since available, "will be distributed in proportion to the efficiency of the various

schools, as ascertained by annual inspection" (60:121). The committees have done faithful service. A series of conferences was arranged that joint action might be taken by several counties; thus has grown up a central board charged with the inspection and examination of schools and the regulation of all matters not distinctively of local concern. The enthusiasm of the Welsh people must bring success. They have already contributed voluntarily more than £100,000 for sites and school buildings. Between 70 and 80 new schools are proposed, and competent judges estimate that before the century is out "5000 boys and 3000 girls will be found in the new public schools, instead of 1500 pupils in endowed schools as 10 years ago" (60:136).

The first decisive move in England was made a year ago by the introduction of a bill by Mr Acland, Sir Henry Roscoe and Mr Hobhouse. It was modeled on the Welsh act, but was more simple in details of execution. Before it could be brought to a vote the government fell. The bill, however, survived and gained strength by the delay. It has reappeared in the present House, but with Sir John Lubbock's name in place of the original prime mover (61-64). And what is of greater moment Mr Acland is vice-president of the council of education<sup>1</sup>—virtually minister of education—with a seat in the cabinet, an honor conferred on only one of his predecessors.<sup>2</sup> A departmental committee has been appointed to confer with representatives of all the chief institutions interested and to consider the organization of secondary education. There is opposition, there will be organized opposition to defeat this bill. The conflicting interests of the established church, of denominational and proprietary schools, and of private venture schools, may bias its provisions and retard educational unity for a time. Both parties, however, are pledged to the task; success can not long be delayed.<sup>3</sup>

Scotland, too, is deeply interested in the problems of intermediate education. Some £60,000, with prospects of twice that amount next year, are now available for distribution. Whatever plan is adopted implies a method of organization which will

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<sup>1</sup> J. ed. L. Sep 92: 453-455.

<sup>2</sup> Mr Forster, in order that he might secure the passage of the Endowed Schools act, 1869.

<sup>3</sup> J. ed. L. June 92: 295.

Ed. news, June 3, 93: 362.



have no small influence on future development.<sup>1</sup> After repeated failures to devise a satisfactory measure, parliament has sustained the department minute of May 1st; distribution will be made on the basis of population.<sup>2</sup> This gives undue advantage to the city schools, which are least in need of the grant (67), but friends of the minute predict that when the benefits of free secondary education are realized ample grants will be made for all schools. Scotland will soon have, if indeed she has not now a school system continuous from the lowest standards to the universities.

But more can be said for Scotland. The only signs of definite progress in university education are to be found there. This is the first year under the new ordinance, an ordinance, too, which assures organic connection with the secondary schools. An entrance examination is now set by a joint board composed of representatives of all the Scottish universities. It consists of (a) English, (b) Latin or Greek, (c) mathematics, and (d) one of the following: Latin or Greek (if not already taken), French, German, Italian, or dynamics. Higher and lower standards are provided in Greek, Latin and mathematics; candidates must pass on the higher standard in at least one. The standards are based on the two grades of leaving certificates of the Scotch education department, and it is expressly stated that the department certificates may be accepted by the universities as the equivalent of the entrance examination.<sup>3</sup>

The requirements for the M. A. degree have been radically changed. The course has been shortened from three and a half years to two and a half.<sup>4</sup> Candidates must take at least seven subjects of which four must be (a) Latin or Greek, (b) English or a modern language or history, (c) logic and metaphysics or moral philosophy, (d) mathematics or natural philosophy. The electives may be taken in the departments of (a) language and literature, (b) mental philosophy, (c) science, or (d) history and

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1 Ed. news, Mar 18, '93: 187.

——— Apr 22 '93: 269.

——— May 13, '93: 318.

2 Ed. news. May 13, '93: full text of minute.

3 The ordinances are printed in full in the Edinburgh university calendar, 1892-93, appendix page 23 ff., and in Glasgow university calendar, 1892-93, page 478 ff.

4 "Three winter sessions (20 weeks each), or two winter sessions and three summer sessions (10 weeks each) at least." *Ordinance*

law. Special provision is made for honor courses. It is to be noted, however, that the degree of M. A. may be secured without Greek; it is compulsory only for candidates for honors in mental philosophy. All the universities will now have courses in pure science and may grant the degrees of B. S. and D. S. The conditions for entrance are practically the same as in the classical course, save that French or German may be substituted for Latin or Greek and that mathematics must be passed on the higher standard. The ordinance also deals with the courses in medicine and with the education of women; it abolishes the old method of paying professors by student fees.<sup>1</sup>

The ordinance has been severely criticized from two sides—by the secondary school men and by the friends of the old university system. A year of trial, however, demonstrates that it has many good features. The entrance examination has largely prevented the matriculation of immature students; and while the new courses are charged with sacrificing general education for professional training, the outcome is that in Edinburgh at least “the university court has agreed that the professors of Greek, Latin and mathematics should be relieved of the work of teaching the junior classes and should devote increased attention to the higher work.” Honor men will no longer have to depend on private study and the assistance of coaches. The work of reform, which began in the primary schools, thus extends to the highest grades of university work.

Little need be said of the progress at home (72–96). The movements already noted in Europe find their counterparts here. Primary education, concerned as it is with the masses, secures not only the devotion of reformers but the “backing” of political leaders; college and university training finds able supporters among the wealthy and cultured classes. But the great domain lying between these two extremes has hitherto been only indifferently fostered. The great movement in this country for systematizing and harmonizing the curriculum is the most notable event of many years (89). Whatever be the immediate outcome, it will have performed important service in calling to public attention the anomalies existent in secondary schools. The opening almost within the year of two great universities bespeaks

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<sup>1</sup> Ed. news. March 11, 98: Summary of a report by a special committee.

We are prone to overestimate the pedagogic value of mere secular instruction and to consider the training of the intellect as the one thing needful. The important place assigned at the Saratoga meeting last summer (144-146) and at educational conferences since held, to the consideration of ethical problems in school work, clearly indicates a growing tendency among schoolmen to give more attention to the cultivation of the higher ideals. The public schools, some say, should inculcate both morals and religion; theology and dogmatism must be excluded.<sup>1</sup> Another step of signal importance has but recently been consummated. I refer to the merging of the parochial and public school systems as inaugurated by Archbishop Ireland, indorsed by the apostolic delegate and sanctioned by Leo XIII in his pontifical letter, dated May 31, 1893, to Cardinal Gibbons and the bishops of the United States.<sup>2</sup> The inference may be drawn that the Roman Catholic church in America now accepts the thesis "secular education is primarily the function of the state."<sup>3</sup> While the pope desires that "Catholic schools be most sedulously promoted," he directs that "it be left to the judgment and conscience of the ordinary to decide, according to the circumstances, when it is lawful and when unlawful to attend the public schools" (159-169). I have already referred to the fruitless attempt of Count Zedlitz to secure the passage of a bill which would have placed the control of the lower schools of Prussia essentially in the hands of the clergy. It was the impolitic expression of an idea, as strong to-day with a considerable proportion of the people as in years gone by, that "religion can not be dispensed with in the education of good citizens." And in this connection let me repeat the significant words of one of England's greatest teachers. The Rev. J. E. C. Welldon said on the subject of religious teaching in higher schools: "The principle on which I will venture to take my stand is, that as public schoolmasters we should endeavor not to magnify, but, as far as we can consistently, to minimize the differences between the church of England and other Christian bodies. And I take up that position because I believe that the public schools are the property, not of the church, but of the

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<sup>1</sup> Christian union, vol. 45: 260.

<sup>3</sup> Ed. rev. May 93: 509-11.

<sup>2</sup> Associated press. June 31, 93.

<sup>4</sup> Christian union, v. 45: 297.

nation." That these are the words of a clergyman of the church of England, headmaster of Harrow, addressed to the great representative body of English preparatory schools, is in itself noteworthy, and they indicate decided progress in educational thought on religious instruction.<sup>1</sup> (153).

A special feature of the year is the unprecedented liberality shown in the admission of women to privileges of higher education (170-179). I need scarcely remind you that Brown university has opened her doors; that, although this is the first year that women have been admitted to Yale, 22 of the 125 graduate students are women (172); that Columbia university has just graduated its first class from Barnard college;<sup>2</sup> that the great medical school of Johns Hopkins, which will open in October, will accord the same privileges to women as to men.<sup>3</sup> Abroad it is the most important reform of the year. Scotland leads. The executive commission, appointed by the act of 1889, issued an ordinance early in 1892 relative to the higher education of women. It granted permission to the university court of each university to admit women to graduation under such restrictions as they might think fit.<sup>4</sup> The universities were quick to act. Aberdeen, St Andrews, and Edinburgh at once resolved to admit women on

<sup>1</sup> Ed. news. May 20, 93: 833-34.

J ed. L. Feb 93: 84.

<sup>2</sup> Christian union. v. 45: 736.

—: 1025.

<sup>3</sup> Ed. rev. Feb 93: 202.

<sup>4</sup> Ordinance No. 18: "Whereas by the universities (Scot.) act, 1889, the commissioners under said act are empowered to enable each university to admit women to graduation in one or more faculties, and to provide for their instruction."

"Therefore the commissioners statute and ordain as follows:—

1 "It shall be in the power of the university court of each university to admit women to graduation in such faculty or faculties as the said court may think fit."

2 "It shall be competent to the university court, after consultation with the senatus to make provision within the university for the instruction of women in any of the subjects taught within the university, either by admitting them to the ordinary classes, or by instituting special classes for their instruction. Such classes shall be conducted by the professors or lecturers in the several subjects, or by lecturers specially appointed for the purpose by the university court. provided always that the court shall not institute classes where men and women shall be taught together except after consultation with the senatus, and provided also that no professor whose commission is dated before the approval of the ordinance by Her Majesty in council shall be required without his consent, to conduct classes to which women are admitted."

4 "So soon as within any of the said faculties (arts, science and medicine) in any university provision is made for the instruction of women in all subjects qualifying for graduation in which provision is made for the instruction of men, the conditions for the graduation of women shall be the same as the conditions for the graduation of men."

equal terms with men. The richly endowed Queen Margaret college, the only woman's college in Scotland, petitioned for incorporation with Glasgow university and was promptly admitted.<sup>1</sup> The first degrees were given this spring to women who had taken their earlier training under circumstances less advantageous. But the first class honors were not won solely by the men.

At Oxford and Cambridge the outlook is not altogether pleasing. Women students at Oxford may be taught and examined and they may win honors, but "they can neither matriculate, graduate, compete for any prize at all, nor enter any library or museum or lecture room, except by favor" (61). A decided effort has been made within the past month at Dublin university to overcome the inherited opposition to the admission of women. The chances seem to favor success; the medical faculty and a majority of the professors favor the proposition. On the continent the movement is spreading. Vienna has recently opened her first public higher school for girls.<sup>2</sup> Sweden has decided to grant state aid to girls' schools.<sup>3</sup> At Easter a *Gymnasium* for girls was opened at Weimar.<sup>4</sup> It is the first move in all Germany to give to girls the classical training everywhere accorded to boys. From Göttingen, too, comes the report that with the beginning of the present semester, lectures would be arranged for women in the department of philosophy.<sup>5</sup> The course at present is intended for one year only; it may be taken by candidates properly prepared and of the minimum age of 25 years. At Berlin women may attend lectures in the medical department as "hearers."<sup>6</sup> All other German universities have denied or refuse to consider all propositions for changing the existing regulations (174, 179). Switzerland, Sweden, Denmark and Italy,

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1 J. ed. L. Aug 92: 427.

—— Sep 92: 476.

—— Oct 92: 555.

—— Nov 92: 594.

—— Dec 92: 635.

2 J. ed. L. Dec 92: 653.

3 J. ed. L. June 91: 308.

4 ——— Feb 93: 128.

5 ——— Nov 92: 590.

6 Revue Internationale. Apr 93: 377.

place no obstacles in the way of women's entering the universities; Russia has special medical courses open to them.<sup>1</sup>

Among the great movements in education we must rank university extension (180-207). The parent society in England is making steady progress (180). Oxford has constituted for the management of extension business a special delegacy, with vice-chancellor and proctors. The delegates are empowered to grant certificates "to persons not being members of the university who have been examined under their direction, and who have been taught by lecturers appointed by them or with their sanction."<sup>2</sup> The center examination is thus recognized by Oxford.<sup>3</sup> Cambridge had already taken a further step in offering to accept certificates showing certain attendance and proficiency as the equivalent for a part of the degree course.<sup>4</sup> The rapidity with which the movement has spread in the United States, since the organization of the American society in 1890, betokens a healthful interest in educational affairs (186, 193, 200). Centers have been formed in nearly every state. The action of Chicago university, which opened with a well-equipped department specially devoted to extension work, gave a decided impetus to the work. In Wisconsin, too, the influence of the university under President Adams is felt throughout the state. The national organization, to meet the demands of next year, has found it necessary to increase the permanent staff of lecturers. More men are needed. The seminary, established a year ago as "a training school for extension lecturers, organizers and secretaries, and for the study of educational problems," has completed a year's excellent work. Ten members were received and, in connection with regular

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1 J. ed. L. Sep 91: 472.

2 ——— June 92: 324.

3 ——— Apr 93: 225.

"The Oxford university extension delegacy has arranged to provide courses of instruction in natural science for students sent to Oxford to study the various branches of that subject by the technical education committees of the county councils. The course of study will last from Monday, August twenty-first, to Saturday, September ninth, inclusive, and will consist of attendance at lectures combined with practical work in the university laboratories under the guidance of the lecturers. The subjects in which classes will be held are as follows: (1) geology; lecturer, Prof. A. H. Green; (2) practical physics; lecturer, the Rev. F. J. Smith; (3) hygiene; lecturer, Dr C. H. Wade; (4) chemistry; lecturer, Mr J. E. Marsh; (5) animal and vegetable pests of crops and stock; lecturers, Mr P. Chalmers Mitchell, and Mr J. B. Farmer. Applications for tickets should be made before June 14th to the Secretary, University extension office, Examination schools, Oxford, who will furnish further particulars."

4 J. ed. L. July 92: 368.



graduate work in the University of Pennsylvania, special courses have been given by some of the foremost educators of the country. A summer meeting — the first to be held — is now in session in Philadelphia. The list of courses is representative of the highest grades of university work; the lecturers, some fifty in number, are men prominent in higher education. Whether or not university extension becomes a permanent feature of our educational system — for popularity is not necessarily synonymous with permanency (187) — it must do much towards arousing a public interest in education that of itself will tend to promote greater unity and higher efficiency in our school systems.

And now of the professional advancement of the teacher (208–232). The signs are many of a more sympathetic union between all grades. When education is accepted as an art the teacher in the primary school may become the superior of many engaged in university work (211). There is no professional distinction; the difference is not qualitative but quantitative. The situation is being honestly faced in England. Parliament has of late considered two bills for the registration of teachers,<sup>1</sup> and it is not unlikely that when the law is made it will include teachers of all grades (216). It is also generally conceded that this reform should precede all others. From a professional point of view the danger from within is of vital concern; so long as quacks can thrive the public will be slow to recognize the just claims of honest men (212, 213).

The unification of the profession is essential to the highest ends. But no external means will suffice to lend the requisite dignity and stability. No more important problem now concerns educators of all countries than that of professional training (220). The excellent results attained in elementary work are full of suggestions for those interested in secondary schools. Prussia, with characteristic foresight, added in 1890 another year of special training to the previous severe requirements (227). Before 1890, candidates for the position of *Oberlehrer* were expected to have had the usual four years' university course, to have passed the state examination and to have taught a year on probation without fee; it is now necessary for the can-

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<sup>1</sup> J. ed. L. Dec. 91: 643.



that the state, which certifies, inspects and censures the teacher, should on the approach of old age not ignore him.<sup>3</sup> The claim is considered just on the continent, and the last English parliament assented to the principle of pensions for superannuated teachers. The realization of this boon can not long be deferred (222-224). In the meantime it is pleasing to note that in Germany, France, England and America, reports agree of the sure, if slow, increase of salaries (222).<sup>4</sup> With better pay men of higher ability can be secured; with abler men the problem of professional training will be simplified; and when once the profession realizes that it is a profession unification will be complete.

If this retrospect means anything, if the tendencies in educational thought are rightly interpreted, the progress since 1890 is the progress of a decade; what may we not expect before the 90's close!

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honors in one or more subjects; and in the third division of the first class in the case of ordinary graduation.

"That students who fail to obtain a degree, or who elect to terminate their training college connection at the end of the first, or the second year, be examined in the first week of July on their university subjects, and that their certificates rank second class if second year's students, and third class if first year's students, the division in each case to be determined by results of examination.

"That the same scholarship examination regulations apply to men and women; and that women qualified to attend university graduation classes be permitted to do so under the regulations applicable to men.

"That women not attending university classes be taught as at present in the training colleges, but only in the higher departments of the scholarship subjects, and in such other subjects as may best fit them for the office of teacher; and that their course of study extend over two years.

"That where chairs of education already exist, and the courses of the professors are recognized as qualifying for graduation in that subject, a principal of a training college be joint examiner with the professor, in each case.

"That where no chairs of education exist, the lectures on education of the principals of the local training colleges be recognized as of professional rank, and that the principals, together with university examiners, examine on education in the graduation examination.

"That chairs of education should be instituted in the universities of Glasgow and Aberdeen; and that the government be petitioned to make suitable provision for their endowment.

"That the department must make adequate provision for meeting the increased expenditure that may be entailed by the foregoing proposals, seeing that they are the natural fruits of its own system."

2 Ed. rev. Jan 93: 99.

——— Apr 93: 407

3 Ed. news. Jan 7, 93: 4.

——— Apr 8, 93: 235.

Schoolmaster. Apr 22, 93: 738.

4 J. ed. L. June 91: 298.

——— June 92: 307.

Schoolmaster. May 6, 93: 825.

———: 817. The average salary of the certificated teacher of England as shown by advance sheets of Education blue book, 1892.

DENOMINATIONS	HEAD MASTERS		CERTIFI- CATED AS- SISTANTS	TOTAL	HEAD MISTRESSES		CERTIFI- CATED AS- SISTANTS	TOTAL
	Average salaries	Number provid- ed with house or rent free	Average salaries (including all professional sources of in- come)	Average salaries	Average salaries	Number provid- ed with house or rent free	Average salaries	Average salaries
Church schools ..	£ s. d. 118 12	4,305	£ s. d. 70 8 7	£ s. d. 111 5 10	£ s. d. 72 8 1	3,753	£ s. d. 48 15 1	£ s. d. 67 0 6
Wesleyan schools	168 11 6	59	78 0 2	147 1 3	83 14 10	2	49 6 0	69 14 2
Roman Catholic schools.....	114 17 7	27	74 15 0	103 14 8	64 17 6	304	50 4 2	61 0 11
British schools...	141 1 0	225	85 15 8	126 16 4	78 3 0	157	54 10 2	69 1 11
Board schools...	158 17 11	1,338	102 10 10	127 10 8	110 2 6	512	78 19 8	91 3 10
Total, 1892 ..	124 5 8	5,994	94 9 9	120 12 4	82 8 8	4,788	69 8 7	77 12 2
" 1891 ...	123 18 10	5,976	91 8 10	119 13 2	82 16 6	4,780	67 4 2	76 11 9
" 1890 ..	124 2 6	5,838	89 17 2	119 18 5	82 17 5	4,601	66 1 2	76 5

School review. June 93: 329-332: "New England herself testifies to this. The following table shows the average per diem salary of teachers, counting 365 days to the year:"

	1870		1880		1890	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Group 1:						
Maine .....	\$0.44	\$0.17	\$0.38	\$0.21	\$0.53	\$0.26
New Hampshire .....	.42	.25	.49	.35	.70	.39
Vermont .....	.56	.35	.48	.30	.79	.39
Group 2:						
Massachusetts .....	1.76	.70	1.64	.74	2.76	1.66
Connecticut .....	1.46	.72	1.38	.87	1.89	.94
Rhode Island .....	1.71	.90	1.77	1.08	2.25	1.16

Appendix

REFERENCES TO BOOKS AND ARTICLES

ON THE

WORLD'S RECENT PROGRESS IN EDUCATION

ABBREVIATIONS

J. ed. L., <i>Journal of education</i> (London).	N. E. A., <i>Report of National educational association</i> (Sara- toga, 1892.)
Ed. news, <i>Educational news</i> (Edinburgh).	Univ. ext., <i>University extension</i> (Phila).
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Explanation : J. ed. L. Jan 92: 24-30, read *Journal of Education* (London), January, 1892. pages 24 to 30, inclusive.

France

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## ANNUAL REPORTS ON SPECIFIC TOPICS,

## EXAMINATIONS

**James Russell Parsons, jr** — Foreign literature of the current year relating to examinations has been as a rule exceedingly interesting. Discussion of the subject in America in 1893 has often been correspondingly dull. In Europe the fact has been most intelligently emphasized that there is no satisfactory substitute for examinations, and progressive educators abandoning visionary schemes have endeavored to improve the character of these necessary oral and written tests. In America certain radical reformers taking up the old cry in vogue successively in Germany, France and England, have cursed the "Chinese system" which permits anybody to be examined. These reformers often without thought of plagiarism have secured an American copyright for the same arguments against examinations which were printed years ago in various European languages. They inform us that examinations are stimulants and that the use of stimulants is bad; that the life of excessively timid students is often shortened by the "tripos fever."

There is undoubtedly some ground for criticism against competitive examinations. The idea is growing perhaps that they

should give way as far as practicable to simple examinations in which the work of candidates is merely reported as very good, good, or indifferent. It can not be denied, however, that persons who really suffer through excessive timidity, while undergoing competitive examinations, will suffer still more in coming in contact with the stronger competition which is inevitable in active life. All admit that examinations are often pushed to excess and that great harm is done by abuse of the system, particularly in elementary schools. Use usually implies more or less abuse. In fact, in some languages the word for use often means abuse. Were we to discard therefore all things which have been abused there would be little left either for favorable or unfavorable criticism.

In discussing the subject of examinations it is remarkable that so many Americans have failed to note the distinction between the various groups of studies. It would seem self-evident that ability to write a language or to perform a surgical operation can be best tested by a practical examination and that moreover examiners in such cases can decide with absolute certainty as to the power of candidates. Nothing is simpler than to establish the qualifications of candidates in lines of work which necessitate practical tests.

It is different in history, philosophy, literature and all branches of learning which do not give practically some new power, the power to do what can not be done at all without study. Examinations in these subjects merely determine within certain prescribed limitations ability to acquire knowledge, to think and to reason. An examiner can not certify that a student knows history. To know history signifies nothing; for who knows history? Questions in these departments of knowledge should not only be adapted to the minds of pupils but should also be strictly confined within prescribed bounds. These facts have led educators during the past year to scrutinize very carefully courses of study and outlines of work used in preparing for examinations. More elasticity is advocated as a result of this scrutiny.

The idea has long been abandoned in Germany and France that each school should be a law unto itself as to the character and scope of its work. The official courses of study are the pro-

duct of the best German and French educational thought. In this way all teachers have the benefit of the experience of others. This is invaluable provided there is sufficient elasticity to prevent purely mechanical work.

As in courses of study so in examinations, teachers appreciate as never before the value of conducting and measuring their work by some common standard. The complaint has been made, however, that common standards are often too comprehensive and are apt to encourage superficiality. In view of this criticism examinations of the day tend towards flexibility. In literature examiners are introducing alternative questions, realizing that the work outlined for examinations is often too comprehensive. The pupil in this way has an opportunity to tell what he knows, and examiners avoid the criticism of trying solely to find out what the pupil does not know.

The best thought of the current year proves more conclusively than ever the necessity for oral and written examinations. Radical reformers have succeeded only in calling attention as of old to abuses. They have brought forward no new arguments. They have simply demonstrated that time is wasted which is spent in endeavoring to find a satisfactory substitute for systems which it would be folly to overthrow. The value of the German *Abiturientenexamen* and of the French *baccalauréat* has grown from year to year through the intelligent cooperation of German and French educators, just as modern methods of transportation have been brought to the present state of perfection by men who, not wasting their talents in deprecating the fact that we were born without wings, have taken advantage of existing conditions. Examinations are a necessity, and the value of systems of examinations depends entirely on the intelligent criticisms and suggestions of those who recognize this fact and spend their time in seeking to remedy their defects.

#### RECENT TREND OF SCIENCE TEACHING

**Prof. John F. Woodhull** — In order to discuss this question intelligently we need more unanimity as to what science teaching is. It has become customary to put almost everything under that head. A very large part of so called science teaching is not recognized as such by scientists. They say there is not the

slightest suspicion of scientific training in it. Reading about the characteristics of oxygen is not science teaching. Those who deal with this pseudo science, as it has been called, justify it by saying, "We do not wish to make specialists," or "Life is too short for each one to prove things for himself." Do we expect to make mathematicians when we teach mathematics? Teaching Boyle's law, in physics, without its proof, is like teaching the captions of propositions in geometry without their demonstration, or the answers of problems in algebra and arithmetic without their solutions.

As for pseudo science, judging from publishers' reports, I may say that it is in a very flourishing condition. The kind of books which Agassiz condemned are still the best selling books.

But when I discuss science teaching I wish to be understood as referring to that teaching which has for its purpose the training of the pupil's mind to become like that of a scientist; that teaching which is calculated to develop careful, painstaking, conscientious, truth-loving accuracy of observation and inference. A very small proportion of the nominal science teaching in the schools is of this sort; but still I may report progress, and say that its constant trend is toward offering greater opportunities for experimental work by pupils.

The condition of the schools offers serious practical difficulties of which those who address educational conventions have often been unmindful or ignorant. For more than a score of years men have discoursed about science teaching and its adoption in schools as sanguinely as though they thought their ideas were practical, and for more than a decade they have succeeded in convincing their audiences of the soundness of their views, at least to the extent of embodying the consensus of their opinions in sets of resolutions. Innumerable courses of study have been the outgrowth of these, but what has been accomplished in the schools? I have learned not to judge of the work done in a school by its course of study. No real science teaching can come into schools over the heads of teachers who are entirely innocent of any of the characteristics of a scientist. We might as well ask a blind man to teach light or a deaf man to teach sound. The inefficiency of teachers is the chief difficulty, but there are others which are very grave, and he is a rare person who can produce



true scientific culture in school under existing difficulties. Still the large number of teachers who every year go to Harvard university to get a taste of real science, offered there in the summer courses, is an encouraging sign.

I am requested to make this brief introduction this year and to give a more extended report next year.

#### CLASSICS AND MODERN LANGUAGES

Prin. D. C. Farr—The May number of the *School review* has a paper by Prof. Bennett, of Cornell, which is so admirable that I wish it could be circulated as our creed throughout the state and particularly brought to the attention of the examiners in the regents' office. There is more educational truth in that article than in a dozen ordinary ones. First, Prof. Bennett says that the great object of teaching the classics is to train students in the correct use of English; therefore every exercise in translation should be an exercise in language and expression not only of correct but of elegant English. Therefore, if I understand the spirit of that paper, it is more in accord with correct educational principles to assign in examination a larger per cent of credits to translation than to grammar. Grammar is important of course, but it is not the ultimate end; and when examinations place as much value on grammar as on translation I think the principle is false, and I hope that this office will feel that the teachers of the state want better translation, more thorough appreciation of literature and less grammar in the teaching of classics. A thousand years ago grammar was a great thing but to-day it is generally considered a means to an end. It seems unfair in Cæsar and Xenophon examinations, which imply only one or two years' study of the language, to expect as much knowledge of syntax as is required in college examinations after four years' study. I know that the University of the State of New York wants to maintain a high standard, but it ought not to expect us to do as much in two years as we can do in four. That is what it has been doing, with the result that the classics are growing more unpopular and that students who ought to be profiting by these studies have been driven to other lines.

Prof. Bennett's paper clearly demonstrates the wisdom of a change in this work, advising less grammar and more training in translation and in appreciation of literature.

The so-called method of translation at sight also receives condemnation from Prof. Bennett, and deservedly. Those who read that article remember a quotation which he gives illustrating the results attained by this method. To call that quotation English would be monstrous; there was no English about it, and this kind of translation is encouraged by this hop, skip and jump method. Translation at sight is all well enough if the Latin and Greek is sufficiently easy; but translation at sight of passages of average difficulty is impossible for students in secondary schools. The grand result aimed at in teaching Latin is not primarily to enable students to talk or write Latin, but to train them to correct use of English and the appreciation of language.

I end as I began, by wishing that the spirit of that admirable paper may prevail in all our teaching, and specially with those who prepare the questions in classics in the office, in order that we may hereafter have more and better training in language, with just enough grammar to give thorough knowledge and appreciation of the language and no more.

#### CREDITS, HONORS AND THE MARKING SYSTEM

**Prin. A. C. Hill**—In view of the importance attached to examinations, written and oral, the subject seems very important. I ask the cooperation of members of the convocation in the study of the question during the year. I expect to find great lack of uniformity in giving credits, both in daily recitations and in examinations. It would be interesting to give the same paper in Latin or some other subject to a half dozen examiners in the state and see the different results of their markings. I think, we should find great diversity. In fact, is not uniformity impossible? The variety of methods in teaching, the different ideas of perfection, are obstacles to a uniform standard. As a result of the impossibility of accurately gaging the work of pupils, the whole system of marking and bestowing honors and prizes seems to have fallen into disrepute. There is some ground for the contempt in which the marking system is held by students in many colleges. In some schools and colleges the marking system is abolished and in others it is merely perfunctory, kept up to create an impression of "thoroughness."

College honors do not hold the place in public estimation that they once did. It is fair to ask whether anything is gained by ranking one man above another in the class room. It is worthy of note that women are winning more and more of the honors in competition with men.

### Discussion

**Prof. Maurice Perkins** — I have taught for nearly 30 years and have thought a good deal about this subject of marking. Personally it is useful. At the end of the week and term my marks tell me a little of what has been done by myself and by the boys. Beside instruction a teacher must give his influence, his thought and hope for the boy's future. In our small colleges we think our advantage is the personal influence and the touch between us and the students. I take my book and look over the 30 or 50 names. I can not remember what each one has done, but my mechanical record shows. One is not doing well and I call him in and say: "You have not been doing very well." He will say, "Oh, yes, I have; I think I have done pretty well." I say, "Look here. On the third of April you did not do very well; on the 10th you were absent; on the 12th you flunked," and so on. "You can do better than that." I have the record there to impress him. If I tell him that I remember this or that, he does not respect it as he does the actual sum total of his work.

As regards the competition which this engenders, I think it is a grand thing. We are all running a race and so are these boys and girls and we must put some mark for them, something that they can see and look back on. Good marks are signs of our approbation; prizes are signs of success. They are a pleasure to the student and the parent. Only a few days ago I saw a boy come up on the stage and take a prize; when his name was called he looked back at his mother and sisters and perhaps even his best girl, and came up with a blush of pleasure and pride to receive his prize. I would not rob him of it, nor his father who sat there and saw his boy come up. It is a part of the romance and beauty of our college life.

**Pres. M. Woolsey Stryker** — In this matter I can contribute little experience and no theory, but will simply testify that the

problem of securing thorough work all through the term without allowing a poor record for 10 or 12 weeks to be made good by an examination is a problem that burdens our faculty. Almost all schools and colleges can hold the best men to a high grade, but it is another matter to stimulate the lower third of a class, the careless group. After a good deal of discussion on that question within the last six months, our faculty has tentatively adopted a scheme of exempting from examinations men whose term average on a scale of 10 is above eight. This was urged as an experiment by four or five of our best instructors and professors, without positive conviction on their part and against much opposition from others. The experiment, which was permissive in the third term for juniors and seniors in as many departments as pleased to apply it, proved quite satisfactory. In a section of some 12 or 15 seniors in pedagogics, four out of 15 had to stand an examination because they did not attain the necessary grade of eight; the rest, as the professors testify and they themselves say, were much more sedulous than usual to stand well throughout the term. It has not, however, passed the realm of pure experiment. I was somewhat suspicious myself because it was so warmly approved by the students. This suspicion may do me no personal credit. But I am not convinced of the value of such a scheme, because I think the very process of cramming for an examination and the mental exercise of gathering all one's resources to make a good impression and strike one telling, effective total blow is a powerful discipline for any man or woman. There are times in our lives again and again when we need to concentrate every ounce of our reserve power and like a blow on a toggle-joint, make everything we have tell. I think that this very discipline of summoning one's total resources is foregone to great disadvantage by an elimination of examinations, so that a man may not have enough courage and training for emergencies to make that one leap which is the one thing that can carry the day. On the other hand, knowing that the lower third of a class is not stimulated and that it crams merely enough to carry it over the point, we have adopted at least for next year, and I trust for years to follow, the following rule: that marking on the scale of 10, no man who stands below four shall be permitted to enter his examina-

tion, but shall make up that examination by special private work, which will make the examination about three times as hard as it would otherwise have been. Thus by pushing from below and dragging from above we hope for success in bringing up the lower third, that the damp undercrust of the pie may be as crisp as the top. We want to eliminate, if possible, that man who sympathizes with the Irishman who said, "Faith, it is not the work I am after, but the wages."

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Wednesday afternoon, July 5

### EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION

SENATOR JAMES T. EDWARDS, PRIN. McDONOGH SCHOOL, BALTIMORE, MD.

One's opinions are greatly influenced by occupation and environment. This fact may explain the strength of conviction and earnestness of expression found in this paper. Certainly its preparation has been prompted by no other motive than a sincere desire to set forth honestly the results of considerable experience, and somewhat unusual opportunities for observing the educational system of this state.

Other things being equal, education always means power, prosperity and happiness. The people of our state believe in education for all, and are willing to pay for it. More than \$20,000,000 were expended last year for educational purposes, which would make a tax of about three dollars per capita of the entire population. But we are rich in resources. The property, real and personal, on which taxes were raised during 1892, amounted to \$4,000,000,000. If the burden of educating our children is sometimes heavy, specially in sparsely settled districts, it is usually cheerfully borne, and there is no thought more remote from the minds of even the humblest citizens than that of rebelling against our system of popular instruction.

It is a fact, however, that the people demand wisdom and faithfulness on the part of the guardians of this great interest. That they are entitled to it goes without saying. They are often sluggish, however, and inefficient in advocating and enforcing important educational measures; the more so, per-

haps, because such questions belong to a class not so exciting as many others which capture public attention. They are nevertheless worthy of eternal vigilance. Education is the foundation on which the whole superstructure of society rests. It may prove in this, as in many a goodly building whose finished walls and varied decorations are weakened and cracked ; the cracks are in the upper stories, but the real cause of the trouble is in the cellar.

Fortunately it may be said with truth that the educational work of this state was never in better condition than it is to-day. Much nonsense has been written and spoken by superficial observers about our "double-headed system."

This criticism would seem to imply a want of coordination and unity in the varied educational operations of the state. The fact is just the contrary. No other state in the Union has so perfect a system. Other states embrace under their direction and control the public schools and normal schools. So does ours, but we go further, thanks to the organizing brain of Alexander Hamilton and the maturing growth of a hundred years. We bind together 400 academies and high schools, a score of colleges and professional schools, hundreds of libraries, the state museum, university extension, scholastic preparation for the study of law and medicine, in short all secondary and higher education into one grand, symmetrical and harmonious whole. It is worthy the Empire state. Lesser states may do less; we are proud that ours has accomplished so much. Each of our great departments has its own field of operations and machinery for performing its work, regulated by laws which are the growth of many years of wise and progressive legislation. They constitute a system of checks against the abuse of power on the part of either department and each stimulates the other to diligence and faithfulness. Let us hope that selfish ambition, or ignorance may never lay rash hand on a work so skilfully planned and successfully executed. Abundant opportunities for observation lead to the conclusion that the department of public instruction and the regents' office are both conducted with absolute fidelity and great ability. Many indications have been given by them within the last few years, showing a friendly

spirit of mutual helpfulness. For example, the cheerful surrender of the control of teachers' classes by the regents in 1889, and the placing of this work where it belongs in connection with the common school system. Again, the hearty cooperation of Sup't Draper in the effort made to adjust the vexed question of district libraries, was most helpful in securing that valuable legislation. A recent visit to the Exposition at Chicago leads to the conclusion, shared by many others, that the educational exhibit there from the state of New York is second to none, and our comparative library display in the U. S. government building is also unsurpassed.

With such satisfactory indications of the sound condition of our educational work, and an unusually hopeful spirit among educators of all classes throughout the state, it was with no little surprise that the friends of higher education observed one note of discord amid the general harmony. The superintendent of public instruction, at the last session of the legislature, secured the introduction of a bill providing for the organization of a bureau of education which was to be unusual as to its manner of appointment and might be extraordinary as to its composition and functions. The board of regents had no recognition in this body and were evidently to have no place in its counsels. No provision was made to secure in its members either educational ability, non-partizanship or impartiality. The superintendent of public instruction and the regents have always been elected by joint ballot of the legislature, but this bureau was to be appointed by the governor alone, and its powers seemed, to conservative educators, to be at the same time singularly indefinite and yet dangerously comprehensive. The bill was favorably reported in the assembly, but failed to make further progress. In the senate it slept in committee and slept well. It is to be hoped that in its present form it will never have a resurrection. Three other educational bills, which deserved a better fate, failed during the sessions of 1892-3. The compulsory education bill passed the senate in 1892, but failed to secure the approval of the assembly. This is lamentable in view of the fact that of the 1,845,519 persons of school age, 772,426 were not registered as attending school at all. This deplorable neglect of school privileges is a



threat against the security of the commonwealth itself, and educators are practically unanimous in asking that an efficient compulsory bill be passed. It is humiliating to feel that a measure fraught with such vast consequences should have been ignored by legislators and preference given to the consideration of petty matters of local legislation. Another example of the same kind of indifference to great interests is found in the treatment awarded the township bill at the last session. This reform has been advocated by advanced educators for nearly a generation. Sup't Crooker in his annual report made an able and convincing argument in favor of its enactment. His interesting tabulation shows that the cost of education is sometimes seven times more in one town than in another in the same county. The law makes the whole town responsible for maintaining roads and bridges, but leaves some struggling rural district to grapple alone with ignorance, yet this is surely of as much importance to the well being of the whole town, as is a stony road or a poor bridge.

This bill passed the senate almost unanimously because it was looked after and pushed. In the assembly, after a long delay, it was favorably reported, and repeated promises were made by the speaker, the leader of the house and prominent members of the opposition, that it should be placed in the list of special orders, but it failed at last of receiving attention, simply because there was no member who was determined to press this important measure, first, last, and all the time.

Another bill failed for lack of a friend of education at the right moment. In 1891 the general government returned to this state about \$2,000,000, this being the amount of the direct tax levied during the civil war. Had some member of the legislature then and there moved that this be made a perpetual fund for educational purposes, there is every reason to believe the proposition would have been acted upon favorably. Alas! the fund was, as it was then intended, temporarily disposed of by being placed to the credit of the state, in the general account of the treasurer; but as such, was of course subject to draft like any other moneys. In 1892 a proposition was brought forward to unite this fund with the United States deposit fund, for the purpose of distributing the annual income in the same manner as the proceeds

1892. The old system of district libraries, which doubtless in early days accomplished great good, had entirely survived its usefulness. The present law provides for two kinds of libraries, one for the school as a part of its furnishings, supplying reference books for daily use; the other makes it possible for any community in this state to be furnished, free of expense, with as good reading as our literature affords. What richer boon than this of good reading, of all means of improvement and entertainment at once the cheapest, most readily available, and lasting!

As a part of the library system of this state, which has its great center in the capitol, provision is now made by which it may radiate its delightful and elevating influences from the center to the circumference of society. Even where there is no library association, if a man or woman will become responsible for them, 100 books will be sent for distribution and use; thus there are no communities so poor or scattered to-day that they may not avail themselves of this generous provision for their intellectual requirements.

An advanced step has also been taken in that great movement which is destined ultimately to give political equality to all citizens irrespective of sex. Women may now vote in elections for county school commissioners. They could be elected to fill the office before, but strange to say could not *vote* to fill it. It is certainly just that women, who are the natural guardians of youth, should have this power, especially as they constitute 84 per cent of the teaching force of the state, and it is fair to suppose, being in the proportion of about five to one, they might occasionally prefer the tactful and intelligent supervision of some gifted member of their own sex.

Another cause for congratulation is the fact that our great state university has so commended itself to public favor, that at the last legislative session it secured an appropriation in the supply bill for the purpose of providing still better facilities for the study of improved agricultural processes and products. The authorities wisely intend to simplify the conditions of admission for those who may be able to remain but a short time at the university, and then return to the farms to put into immediate practical use the knowledge obtained.

A bill was passed during the last session relating to the details of administration in the department of public instruction, and making some important changes in regard to the school year. Another measure which was pointedly urged by Sup't Crooker in his annual report, was the establishment of kindergarten schools. The bill was passed, and although it is simply permissive, will be hailed with pleasure as a step forward in the right direction. Kindergartens lengthen the period of school attendance at the right end. They cultivate habits of observation, inculcate courtesy, grace, obedience, industry, unselfishness, good taste, love of the beautiful, and best of all, do this work in such a manner that a rightly conducted kindergarten is a paradise for children. Along the same line was the act making music a part of our school curriculum, provided the community concerned so decides. The advocacy of these liberal and advanced measures by the superintendent of public instruction received the favorable comment of the best educational sentiment of the state, but it was with amazement and emphatic opposition that educators everywhere read the utterances in the same report in regard to higher learning. What are the "questionable expenditures" to which reference is given in that report? Are they not made according to law? Does "questionable" refer to method of administration or the propriety of appropriating money to the objects for which it is now legally expended? The phrase must allude to the latter. The following quotation makes the meaning plainer: "It is my opinion that a vast amount of the public moneys is diverted from the original purpose, in furnishing higher education to a small number of a favored class." Again, "Too much importance is attached, and too much of the public money given to the support of higher education." These and other statements of the same tenor leave no room to doubt that the superintendent thus throws down the gage of battle at the feet of this convocation, composed of the friends of higher education, and distinctly announces the inauguration of a conflict, which all of us supposed had been fought once for all, and the victory won years and years ago. Is the shadow to be turned back upon the dial? What is meant by appropriations for a "special class"? Are not our high schools, free schools? The real favored classes are rich enough to give

their children the advantage of attending secondary schools and colleges, but not would it be with the son or daughter of the poor man who wishes to rise. All do not attend the higher schools, not all may do so, and so many do avail themselves of their advantages that it can be said with great propriety, that the high schools and academies are the people's colleges. Most of the men of mark in this country today won their way up to them even a small tuition fee would have been a great burden. The chairman of the Judiciary Committee, during a discussion in the senate last April said, that every member of his committee had recently declared that if he had been forced to pay a fee of \$25 of his own money at the time of completing his law studies he could not have graduated. Like granite, the poor are at the bottom of all, but often shoot above all. Give every citizen a fair chance in the school as at the polls. Let the poor boy win his way to college if he can; the state has no nobler function than to lend him a helping hand.

Huxley says, "No system of public education is worthy the name of national unless it creates a great educational ladder with one end in the gutter and the other in the university." President Schurman, in a recent address quotes the noble sentiment uttered by Edmund Burke—"The state is a partnership in all science, a partnership in all art, a partnership in every virtue and in all perfection." The following from the report in regard to the functions of government, is an astounding limitation to be formulated in the last decade of the 19th century: "The field of primary education is quite worthy of the most earnest attention and liberal efforts of the state, for such a field is the *only one* which is of necessity useful to the children of a majority of the taxpayers." That "only one" is indeed important work, but the education which the state should foster includes far more than is here indicated. Experience has shown that it is higher education which creates the lower. Education works downward rather than upward, or, as Editor Bardeen has said, "It does not require a profound knowledge of educational history to be aware that educational forces pull from above, not push from below. The college always precedes the common school in influence as well as in time." We have public schools because we had colleges, not the reverse. Many of the brainy men among the colonists were from Oxford and Cambridge. They built Harvard, Yale, Princeton and King's college in the

wilderness. 30 years after landing, the Hartford colony sent back word to England, "One half the public money is devoted to the establishment of free schools". Any person who visits the exposition will return with a grander conception of our western states, even the latest admitted to the Union, but he will at the same time have his convictions strengthened that states are not made solely by fertile soil, rich mines, broad rivers and favoring climate. Notwithstanding the splendid resources of the west, history will show that the mightiest factor in determining its high destiny has been educated men and women. The quaker poet was right;—

"The riches of the commonwealth  
Are free strong minds, and hearts of health.  
And more to her than gold or grain,  
The cunning hand and cultured brain."

If this retrograde movement in education is to be organized here we shall do well to bring back from Alaska and the slopes of the Rocky mountains some of the cultured sons and daughters of the east to serve as missionaries among us. They at least have no grave doubts as to whether "the state should be asked to educate" for the higher walks of life. The handsomest building in each new western town is the high school, and the greatest ambition of every new commonwealth is to give its citizens the best educational advantages.

The leading educational journal in America, in commenting upon the expressions quoted from the report, says,— "The teachers of the state, when they read sentiments like these will feel profoundly grateful that the state superintendent has no authority to mold or change courses of study. They have set out on a march of improvement as resistless as the incoming of the tide, which the superintendent's feeble outcry is powerless to arrest". This subject would not have been entitled to so much attention had not the discussion been opened by one who occupies the highest educational position in the state, and this paper is prepared for the consideration of the natural guardians of the higher education of our commonwealth. All noble institutions have been matured through the ripening influences of years. Among the noblest, which are the product of our advanced civilization, there is not one of which the state is more justly proud than that admir-

able system of free schools which offers to all our citizens, rich and poor alike, the opportunity for obtaining the best education the land affords.

In conclusion, suffer a few words, suggested by experience, in regard to the dangers and safeguards of educational legislation.

Senators and assemblymen are usually fairly representative of the character and intelligence of their constituencies. Among the things they feel they must secure is the passage of measures which concern their own localities. It is the story over again of the orator who was speaking for "Buncombe district", and the gentleman who represented Duluth. Not many members take a warm interest in measures of state importance, and still fewer are attracted to the subject of education. Oratory is usually reserved for political measures. The busy representatives of the press always find such questions as those of text-books and kindergarten work rather tame and uninteresting and give them brief mention.

The things that stir the blood or have money back of them, hold the attention of the average member. It follows, therefore, that our educational force in the state must secure, if possible, someone in each branch of the legislature who will give his heart, thought and persistent effort to advance those measures which are of educational importance. Hold up his hands, and not only so, but press upon the attention of "our member," as the phrase goes, the member who represents you, the value of the measure you believe in. These men want to do about the fair thing. There are not many lofty ideals among them, and the standard of action is often too low, but upon the whole they are honorable men who seek to do their duty. Inform them in regard to the importance of pending measures upon which your special training has qualified you to speak. Our teachers and school officers should keep constantly informed as to the merits of proposed educational legislation. This vigilance is the price we pay for being free. As in our country each citizen should feel himself responsible for good government, so, in an especial sense, should every educator feel responsible for the enactment of wise educational laws. It is not fair to neglect, or be indifferent and then sharply criticize. No language can exaggerate the importance of right education, and the measure of its value is the measure of our responsibility.

This convocation should realize and exercise its great influence. Representative of the various institutions which compose the University, it is, as has been said by our late lamented chancellor, "The congress of higher education in New York." Can we better close than by repeating the words which have so lately fallen from his eloquent lips? "The most precious gift of education is not in the mastery of sciences . . . but noble living, generous character, the spiritual delight that springs from familiarity with the loftiest ideals of the human mind, the spiritual power which saves every generation from the intoxication of its own success." Amid the exaltation and coronation of material prosperity, let this University here annually announce, in words and deeds, the dignity and superiority of spiritual life.

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## HIGHER EDUCATION AND THE STATE

REGENT CHARLES E. FITCH

I am to speak to you upon an old subject familiar to your meditations, frequently discussed in your presence. All that I can hope to do is to couch the old thoughts in my own phrase, and possibly to add something to their significance by revealing a modification of certain views I have heretofore expressed concerning the relations of the state to education. I come to the confessional and trust I may receive absolution at your hands. In a kindly allusion to myself, the astute and accomplished editor of the *School bulletin* said recently that I had become tired of fighting windmills after the fashion of Don Quixote. The editor appreciated my position exactly. I have been for some time tired of this kind of conflict, and have rested on my arms. Now I want to catch hold of a sail of the windmill, and go round with it while it grinds the corn or drives the plane. In other words, I would identify myself with those forces which contend for the highest educational development of the citizen, through the supervision or by the aid of the state, and renounce connection with those who hold the narrow conception of its functions to the maintenance and diffusion of elementary knowledge.

At the outset, I freely admit the plausibility that attaches to the postulates of limitation, and the sincerity, in which a rugged



common sense seems to inhere, with which they are urged. Let me state them as concisely as possible. I believe I can state them fairly, for I have felt their fascination and yielded to their persuasion. Thus they run: It is the right of — nay it is incumbent upon — the state to assure its safety, upon the basis of a citizenship informed as to the requisites of that safety. Such safety is assured when the citizen has received an education sufficient to enable him to exercise the elective franchise intelligently, and to this end instruction in the elementary branches is adequate. Further than this as a negative hypothesis, the state should not do for the individual anything that he can or should do for himself, and, affirmatively, the voluntary system will provide for all the needs of the individual beyond the elementary boundary.

These statements are, at least, coherent and consecutive. They have that directness of form which proceeds, either from exact knowledge or dogmatic assumption. They are uncompromising in their terms. They appear to be logical — as logical as was the argument of the deacon when he built his “wonderful one hoss shay”.

They are positive propositions, which are always formidable weapons in the arena of debate. There are in them also a fealty to personal manhood, in which the virility of a commonwealth chiefly consists, and a protest against paternalism which corrupts the state, as well as emasculates the individual, that invests them with philosophic dignity and evokes patriotic response: and right here, the case for limitation makes its most specious showing, with the manhood of the individual as its premise, and the safety of the state as its sequence. Where then is the weakness of the theory, the flaw in the logic, the imperfection of what Huxley happily calls “Administrative nihilism”? Because the theory fails when subjected to practical tests; because from the problem proposed factors are eliminated essential to its solution; because the logic, in its predicates, is assumption, and, in its ultimates, absurdity.

Fundamental to all else, is a misconception of the functions of government. Whatever may be the original constitution of human government, whether it rests upon the natural rights of each one, to be vindicated in consonance with the rights of all who compose it, or is a mere contract or agreement between those who enter into it, it is clear that its action can not be

concluded by abstract rights, but that it must meet opportunities and consult expediencies. It must not be restrained by the strait-jacket of prerogative. It must have breadth of vision and freedom and flexibility of movement. It must confront conditions as they present themselves, and conquer or conform to them, as occasion demands. What is right, or what is expedient, to-day, may be wrong or inexpedient, to-morrow; and state-craft must regard the distinctions thus involved, adjusting old rules to changed circumstances, or formulating new ones within the newer light. There are, of course, certain cardinal rights of the individual, incorporated in the common law or guaranteed in written constitutions, immutable, indefeasible, sacred, with which government can not interfere, except at its own peril, but, outside of these, it should be elastic in its scope, avoiding, in the conduct of its affairs, alike the over-legislation against which Mill inveighs and the administrative nihilism which Huxley dissects.

To be educated at the public expense is not a natural right of any subject or citizen. Without it, he could live, labor and die. Without it, he could even, in the last analysis, maintain his civil rights, and as a member of the community, in which he was placed, repel invasion and resist tyranny. Education is the acquisition of the individual. It is the gift to him by an enlightened state, which obtains its recompense in his enlightened service. Like "bread cast upon the waters," the gift returns resolved into its safety, weal, progress, glory. Plainly, the profit that ensues is the result of its policy. It will discern its own interest and act in accordance therewith. How then shall the quality and quantity of the education offered be determined, save as expediency dictates? Shall the safety, or the welfare, or the glory of the state prescribe the curriculum? Plainly again, the state will do just as little or just as much, in this respect, as it deems expedient, and it will as obviously do little or much, according to the measure of its own enlightenment. With catholic enlightenment, it will transgress narrow boundaries nor will its onward course be stayed by the saws of the schoolmen. If it be here interposed that education is not a legal right, but is a moral duty of the citizen, and that the state should not do for the individual that which he can or should do for himself, the query, in turn suggests itself: What shall the state do, if the individual

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concluded by abstract rights, but that it must meet opportunities and consult expediencies. It must not be restrained by the strait-jacket of prerogative. It must have breadth of vision and freedom and flexibility of movement. It must confront conditions as they present themselves, and conquer or conform to them, as occasion demands. What is right, or what is expedient, to-day, may be wrong or inexpedient, to-morrow; and state-craft must regard the distinctions thus involved, adjusting old rules to changed circumstances, or formulating new ones within the newer light. There are, of course, certain cardinal rights of the individual, incorporated in the common law or guaranteed in written constitutions, immutable, indefeasible, sacred, with which government can not interfere, except at its own peril, but, outside of these, it should be elastic in its scope, avoiding, in the conduct of its affairs, alike the over-legislation against which Mill inveighs and the administrative nihilism which Huxley dissects.

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will not or can not do that which he should do, of his own volition, independent of the aid of the state? Shall it refrain from proffering such aid? Shall it not rather stimulate the will and fortify the morals of the individual, specially when experience has shown that voluntary effort will not erect the common school, and is incapable of elaborating a competent scheme for secondary and higher education, unless we except that dedication of colossal fortunes, which these latter days have witnessed, and which, after all, is tantamount to state largess.

If it be said that elementary education will assure the safety of the state, it is answered that this is *petitio principii* and is without warrant in fact. It is to be noted that, in this country, at least, public provision for higher education antedates that for elementary education, and that, from early colonial times to the present, state aid has constantly been bestowed upon institutions of advanced learning; so that, having no experimental knowledge of the sole influence of the common school upon the common safety, we can draw no deduction from our ignorance. We are foreclosed from speculating, much more, from dogmatizing upon it. The puritan theocracy founded Harvard college in 1636, 11 years before the general court of Massachusetts made its first enactment in behalf of the free public school. Yale college, which began with the bundles of books that 10 congregational ministers brought to Branford, received its quickening impulse when 15 years later New Haven raised £700 for its endowment and Connecticut granted it 250 acres of land, and £100 in currency. Virginia, lamentably backward and deficient in promoting popular instruction, fostered William and Mary college from the first, with the proceeds from imposts, grants of land and donations of money; and later, under the leading of Jefferson, she established her principal university, upon a munificent foundation, promising, in the language of that illustrious statesman that she would not "interfere with education, except in the points where it could not be safely left to individual enterprise, viz: in the case of persons too poor to pay for it themselves, and in that where the expense and magnitude of the subject defied individual enterprise as in case of a university." We need not multiply the instances of colonial care for higher education — they are of almost uniform tenor; but we are not surprised to learn that of the 55

members of the constitutional convention of 1787, that drafted that instrument which, more than anything else, more than all things else, has conserved the safety of the republic, at least nine had been students at Princeton, four at Yale, three at Harvard, one at the University of Pennsylvania and six or seven at William and Mary. Even upon the doctrine that the state is but a policeman, charged only, as Gerrit Smith put it, with the protection of persons and property, it is well that it should be an intelligent policeman, made so by the intelligence of those who control its ballot boxes and frame or execute its laws. It was a pregnant observation of Andrew D. White, in an address delivered several years ago, that, in a period rife with public corruption, when legislation was trafficked in as openly as sheep are sold in the shambles, and many reputations were sadly smirched, college-bred men were singularly free from reproach. They were in the main, insensible to temptation, as being by their liberal training fortified against it. Such men not only give intelligent direction to the state, but, like "salt which has not lost its savor," preserve its moral tone. Will the "three R's" furnish such equipment?

When we enter a higher realm of thought, and contemplate the weal of the state, the expediency of state aid to education, in all its departments, becomes still more apparent, provided it is proper for the state to legislate at all for its own weal, or for the weal of the individual, which is practically the same thing; for, in this view, the state is but the larger individual, an entity which, like the individual, moves, thinks, and aspires, suffers and rejoices, contends, fails, and succeeds. Here, however, comes in the objection of those who admit the claims of elementary education as a necessity of the state, that it may not go beyond this, upon the plea of its weal, and they make, as they must to be consistent, their objection broad enough to cover all legislation, having for its object the weal of the state, for surely if its weal abides in anything it is in an educated citizenship, and that in full measure of attainment. I shall not stop to discuss the underlying fallacies of such a contracted idea of the nature and responsibilities of government, but I must emphasize its unreasonableness, its insufficiency, and its cruel selfishness. Applied in its integrity, it would sever those mutual dependencies that are the security and sweetness of human society, under well-ordered



government. It would isolate the individual. It would prescribe the survival of the fittest, that is, of the strongest, which is the antithesis of civilization, the tragedy of barbarism. It would refuse succor to the afflicted, help to the needy, encouragement to the struggling, incitement to the ambitious. Thus applied, the state would be without sanitary safeguards. It would place no barriers in the path of pestilence. It would not construct almshouses, nor hospitals, nor asylums. It would not sweep the streets, nor cleanse the slums. It would have no libraries or laboratories, no museums or art galleries, no observatories or weather bureaus. It would build no wharves, nor levees, nor light houses. It would commission no scientific expeditions. It would not lay out parks nor dedicate monuments. It would not issue letters-patent, nor seal copyrights, for these are premiums upon inventive genius and busy brains. It would not grade roads, nor dredge harbors, nor deepen channels. It would not collect statistics of trade, manufacture, or the professions, nor enumerate its population. It would not further agriculture through experiment stations, nor invite the tillage of virgin acres by homestead acts. It would have no mints, nor post-offices, nor custom houses, and, least of all, would it have academies and colleges and universities radiating knowledge from illuminated centers to its remotest confines. It would have war ships and prisons and policemen's clubs, for it would recognize their utility. It would do nothing for the convenience or comfort or elevation or happiness of the people, for these are not comprehended in its economy. The logic of *laissez faire* is inexorable, and ends in nihilism. It is only by pursuing it to its inevitable conclusions that we see how irrational, as well as how pitiless it is.

In the application of the idea of the state opposite to this — that of activity — voluntaryism is, by no means, discouraged or discountenanced. It is rather promoted and supplemented. Nor does the idea imply an enervating paternalism — the paternalism of Bellamy's dream or Besant's satire. It would not put brakes upon private enterprise, nor checks upon private beneficence. The vigorous state is not inimical to robust individuality. They are in harmony with each other. The pulse of an abounding vitality throbs through the arteries of each. They may labor separately, or labor together, or one



may finish the work that the other begins. The state can do some things better than the individual, and the individual can do some things better than the state. Wise statesmanship both differentiates and correlates the two, with due regard to existing conditions. Private capital opens mines, digs canals, covers the land with rails of steel, pierces the air with electric currents swift and serviceable, compels the elements to do its will, and seats itself in regal state in splendid cities, wherein multifarious industries thrive, and the temples of commerce and art and science arise. Enterprise urges capital to grand achievement and capital obeys, never more willingly than to-day; but there may be enterprises, whose consummation would marvelously develop national resources and strengthen the national life, enterprises which should be accomplished at the behest of civilization, that are so stupendous and far reaching that private capital hesitates or refuses or is unable to undertake them, which must depend upon governmental aid for their realization; and such aid we hold may be, as properly, as cheerfully, accorded. California cries over alkali plains and the hoary summits of the Rockies for association with the east, and the nation loans its credit and allots portions of its domain to the Pacific railways. The magnificent conception of international exchange and amity, that would link the Latin races of the south with the Anglo-Saxon stock of the north, along an unbroken line of travel and of traffic, 10,000 miles in length from New York to Buenos Ayres, would convey the fabulous treasures and the luxuriant growths of the tropics to the welcoming marts and would bring lethargic and superstitious peoples into the clearer light and the purer ether, appals private capital by the complexity of its engineering problems and the enormous cost of its construction. Dividends to stockholders would be delayed, but what shining profits civilization would pass to its credit. The intercontinental railway must be built, wholly or in part by the nations whom it will transcendently benefit: and why should it not thus be built? Grants and bounties and subsidies have ugly definitions in the dictionary of *laissez faire*, but sagacious states employ them.

If the state may care for material things may it not also care for nobler things, for those things which, more than stocks and bonds, mill-wheels and railways, enrich it? May it not care for education,

and that, not alone by laying the foundation, broad and deep, in the common school, but also; by placing upon these, tier above tier, the ascending courses by positing the floors of the academy, by fashioning the stately pillars that support the college, by crowning all with the capstone of the university? But, because the state may, and often must, be, for its own weal, the architect of the educational edifice, it does not follow that it may not also be the competitor or coadjutor of private beneficence in this regard. Certainly, such beneficence is not to be trammelled or discarded. It should be permitted, nay, encouraged, to do all that it wishes to do; and I am not prepared to deny that the time may come when the state may well be relieved entirely from the maintenance, if not from the supervision, of higher education, which may trust itself to private agencies for its furthest ken and utmost sweep. It has done so much, what may we not hope it will do? As we view our time, this age of the money-getters and grabbers with the false but, let us fondly imagine, the fleeting, social standards they impose, and pass our just criticism upon corporate monopolies and combinations of the few baneful to the masses, we also see that wealth accumulates but to diffuse itself that, like the rain, it gathers, but to descend in blessings on the land. When I hear the cynic sneer at all wealth as mean and sordid and grasping, for the sake of grasping, I turn from his railing, to note what some wealth has here done. I find it sensitive to suffering and open-handed to the prayer of indigence. I see it clothe the naked and house the homeless. As an enchanter, it moves its wand and the new Chicago rises on the ruins of the old; fever-stricken Memphis is comforted and cleansed, and famine-stricken Dakota is fed. At its touch, eleemosynary institutions are evoked. It has marched, with the puritan column from Plymouth Rock to Puget sound and, by the way-side, has erected colleges and universities, itself the chief artificer of the voluntary system which, independent of the largest of the state, infuses higher education with Christian inspiration and directs it to Christian needs. It has wreathed with unfading laurel the brows of Amos Lawrence and Isaac Rich and Ezra Cornell and Asa Packer and Leland Stanford and other benefactors of their kind. These are the names at whose mention we should as scholars, or as patriots, uncover.

According all due meed of praise to the operation of the voluntary principle, granting even that it is to be preferred

to, or substituted for, state responsibility, whenever possible, it remains true that the state has much to do because, if there were no other reason therefor, of the limitations of that principle which, like certain virtues, has the defects of its own excellencies. It is as free to stop as to start, and it can not be constrained, even when its service is needed most imperatively. In well-ordered schemes of education, the state must almost uniformly take the initiative. It is said sometimes that higher education will take care of itself. I once indulged in a little rhetorical flight of this kind declaring that "the sparks from his anvil will fire the brain of Elihu Burritt and the old red sandstone will sharpen the wits of the stone mason of Cromarty." This won't do. It is too partial. A general proposition can not be deduced from too few particulars. Such a proposition is weak in logic and weaker in fact. Elihu Burritt and Hugh Miller were men of exceptional powers, who were strong enough to burst the bonds of circumstance, but they do not prove that a blacksmith's forge is the best training school for a linguist, nor that the strata of the rocks are the leaves of the only book which a geologist should read. They do not prove that, because they were self-taught, all men can teach themselves, or because the privileges of instruction were denied them, they should be denied to all. The "mute, inglorious Miltons" should have a chance to sing.

The philosophers from Plato to Herbert Spencer have discoursed upon the functions of government, enunciating various and diverse formulas, from the extreme of negation to the most radical dicta of paternalism, but the famous apothegm of John Locke that "the end of government is the good of mankind" is the most concise in expression and the noblest in sentiment of all. It is the golden rule for statesmanship. And this rule, with its philosophic rationale and its humanitarian scope, has its vindication in the sovereignty of the people. This consideration is final. It clinches the argument. *Vox populi* may not always be *vox dei*, but it is always the voice of authority. In a republic, the functions of government abide in the will of the majority. Its mandate is supreme. It may ordain and repeal statutes. It may amend or abrogate organic law itself. It may, if it chooses, do away with the *habeas corpus*, the trial by jury and all the sacred and time-honored muniments. Of course, this would mean the

destruction of the state, but the power is indisputable. The tyranny of the majority may even be justified by the right of the majority, but the safeguard against such tyranny is in the education of the people. Education protects the people against themselves but the right cannot be gainsaid. A day or two ago, at Gettysburg, amid the monuments that gratitude has dedicated to valor, upon that historic spot, and among the veterans who have survived the crucial conflict there witnessed, the chief magistrate of this commonwealth, in a speech of singular felicity of diction and patriotic fervor, repeated and emphasized the words of the martyred president, uttered upon that same battle-field, that immortal sentence defining the republic, its principle, its purpose, its powers: "Government of the people, by the people, for the people." Invoking this high sanction what shall stand in the way of the people, in the exercise of their sovereignty, of themselves, by themselves, and for themselves, instituting and maintaining education, in all its grades throughout the land? To sum up the whole matter, let us quote the admirable exposition of Professor Huxley: "If the positive advancement of the peace, wealth, and the intellectual and moral development of its members are objects which the government, as the representative of the corporate authority of society, may justly strive after, in fulfilment of its end — the good of mankind — then it is clear that the government may undertake to educate the people. For education promotes peace by teaching men the realities of life and the obligations which are involved in the very existence of society; it promotes intellectual development, not only by training the individual intellect, but by sifting out from the masses of ordinary or inferior capacities, those which are competent to increase the general welfare by occupying the higher positions; and, lastly, it promotes morality and refinement by teaching men to discipline themselves, and by leading them to see that the highest, as it is the only permanent content is to be attained, not by groveling in the rank and steaming valleys of sense, but by continued striving toward those high peaks, where, resting in eternal calm, reason discerns the undefined, but bright, ideal of the highest good — "a cloud by day, a pillar of fire by night."

So much for the argument, and with this I might be content, elementary and fragmentary as it has been, but, in this presence,

some reference to historical data seems pertinent. The people, in their sovereign capacity, have had little doubt as to their right, or indecision as to their duty, in the premises. Colonial policies, although under theological domination, were as liberal as colonial means allowed, and sufficient for the sparsely settled colonial communities. The colonial governments considered it a legitimate function and solemnly incumbent upon them to create and control institutions of higher learning, and, if necessary to support them; and from such institutions came the men who molded the destinies of states and founded the nation. With the birth of the nation, however, it became informed both in its head and throughout all its members, with those enlarged views of education, as essential to the public weal, which have taken form in educational appropriations and endowments, or in the corollary of these, the exemption from taxation of property that is in actual use for educational purposes. The fathers had no doubt of the wisdom of such policies, and some of them comprehended in their thought, the erection of a national university, which, to-day, has strenuous championship from some of our most prominent educators. President Washington, in his first message to congress said: "Nor am I less persuaded that you will agree with me in opinion that there is nothing more deserving your patronage than the promotion of science and literature. Knowledge in every country is the surest basis of public happiness. In one in which the measures of government receive their impressions so immediately from the sense of the community as ours it is proportionately essential," and he continued "whether this desirable object will be best promoted by affording aid to seminaries of learning already established, by the institution of a national university, or by any other expedients, will be well worthy of a place in the deliberations of the legislature." John Adams was a staunch advocate of higher education, and made constant record of his sentiments. To the educational committee of Kentucky, he wrote as follows: "The wisdom and generosity of the legislature in making liberal appropriations of money for the benefit of schools, academies and colleges, is an equal honor to them and their constituents, and a proof of their veneration for letters and science and a portent of lasting good to North and South America and to the world." James Madison, in his second annual message said: "Whilst it is

universally admitted that a well instructed people alone can be permanently a free people, and whilst it is evident that the means of diffusing and improving useful knowledge from so small a proportion of the expenditures for national purposes, I cannot presume it to be unreasonable to invite your attention to the advantages of superadding to the means of education provided by the several states a seminary of learning instituted by the national legislature, within the limits of their exclusive jurisdiction, the expense of which might be defrayed or reimbursed out of the vacant grounds which have accrued to the nation within those limits." Even Thomas Jefferson, although not so pronounced as were some of his contemporaries in favor of federal aid to education, admitted its propriety in one of his messages, and was unreservedly committed to the principle of state aid. He was the father of the University of Virginia. Apostle of republicanism as he was, jealous of the interference of the state in individual concerns, his deliverances being constantly quoted by the disciples of *laissez faire*, he drafted the plan of that university which the state established and has constantly nourished. In this plan he says: "And this brings us to the point at which are to commence the higher branches of education, of which the legislature requires the development; those for example, which are to form the statesmen, legislators and judges, on whom public prosperity and individual happiness are so much to depend; to expound the principles and structure of government . . . to develop the reasoning faculties of our youth, enlarge their minds, cultivate their morals and instil into them the precepts of virtue and order . . . These are the objects of that higher grade of education, the benefits and blessings of which the legislature now propose to provide for the good and ornament of their country, the qualification and happiness of their fellow-citizens, of the parent especially, and of his progeny, on whom all his affections are concentrated." The national university has not yet had being, but the nation has done much for higher learning. In the ordinance of 1787, of which Daniel Webster said: "I doubt whether one single law of any law giver, ancient or modern, has produced effects of more distinct, marked and lasting character," it was declared that "religion, morality and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the



means of education shall forever be encouraged," and the compact was kept throughout all that magnificent territory embraced within the terms of the ordinance. By the distribution of the surplus revenue in 1837, 27 states received their respective portions of the public funds, and by far the larger number consecrated them to educational objects. The congressional land grant of 1862 was intended to endow in each state at least one college with special reference to teaching branches of learning related to agriculture and the mechanic arts. Aside from these trusts committed to the states, there have been grants of nearly 80,000,000 acres of land to institutions specifically named. Within the province of national benefaction and supervision are to be included the military and naval academies, the congressional library, the naval observatory, the national museum and Smithsonian institution, and withal the bureau of education which shows the vital and continuous interest the nation takes in educational matters throughout all the states and territories.

And the states? Time will not suffice to review their work. In the older states that work has been largely supplementary to private beneficence in aiding institutions which denominational zeal has inspired. In the newer states, the policy has been to adopt a system of public education that includes a university, but in both, the state has been an intelligent guardian of, if not a bountiful almoner to higher education. Rhode Island alone has never aided her university except by exemption from taxation. By the report of the commissioner of education for 1886-87, it appears that the states had then appropriated less than \$28,000,000 to institutions of higher education, but something of this is approximate: the sum does not embrace the amounts derived by the states from the general government; it excludes appropriations to state libraries, museums etc., except as they are connected with colleges and universities, and of course, takes no note of expenditures for elementary or secondary education. The figures are not overwhelming in their magnitude, but the results achieved have been most satisfactory and have abundantly demonstrated the efficacy of the principle of state aid.

The educational policy of New York has been, from the first, eminently sound, conserving at once the manhood of the indi-



vidual and the weal of the state. It has been conformed to the precept of that eminent son of the state, himself a pupil in the school of Jefferson, Horatio Seymour, who said: "If it is true that the intelligence, the virtue and the prosperity of society demand that some be highly educated, if the interests of persons and property are promoted by this, then the public welfare calls for schools where they can be taught. If common schools are demanded by the very nature of our government, then the interests of all our people demand that there should be those so highly educated, not only that they can carry them on, but more than that, who can by their influence keep alive in the public mind a sense of the value of such schools." New York has had two systems of education, separate in organization and conduct, yet not without vital points of contact. Upon the common school, the state has poured its unstinted millions. When higher education has needed largess, it has been freely bestowed. When the need has ended the largess has ceased, and constitutional inhibition has become the bulwark against sectarian assaults upon the treasury. Educational legislation has not been cast in a rigid mold of dogma or precedent. It has been flexible and responsive to times and circumstances. It has been radical when new departures were expedient; it has been conservative when crude experiments have been proposed or sciolism has menaced.

The university of the state has been unique in its constitution, preserving titles and tenures inhering in aristocratic bodies, yet democractic in impulse and in act. It has not been a single institution, but a congeries of colleges, academies and professional schools, each, however, retaining its autonomy, selecting its faculty and perscribing its curriculum, amenable only to the university for violations of its charter. Unlike the regents in some western states, invested with the powers of trustees, the New York board has had supervision, rather than authority, has been an adviser instead of a ruler. And yet, this gentle supervision has woven cords of sympathy between the various institutions, has given them unity of purpose through wholesome rivalries, and has made them collectively worthy of state pride. It has cohered them in this convocation which is generally and justly regarded as the leading American educational gathering of the year. New York may well glory in her dual scheme of edu-

cation. Her common schools are set at every cross-roads, and the sound of their bells echoes from every hill-top, through the valleys, while their control, centered at the capital, ramifies through every section. In her normal schools, she thoroughly equips her teachers. Her secondary schools are of a high grade. Her smaller colleges, not too numerous to attenuate, nor too few to vitiate the strength of the system, are rapidly taking rank with New England institutions of a similar class, while within her borders, are the most aspiring universities, princely in their endowments, elaborate in their courses, catholic in their invitation, grand already in achievement, grander in promise, destined to be among the select company of really great universities, which the 19th century fortells, but the 20th waits to witness.

And still, if in conclusion, we were to indicate the most distinguishing outcomes of recent educational activity in New York, we should find them in the enterprises that the board of regents has inaugurated. Aristocratic only in name, it is one of the most democratic of educational bodies. The allegation that it was ever segregated from the masses, remote and inaccessible, effete and inefficient, was a gross misconception, or a wilful perversion on the part of those who published it. It has administered the trusts confided to it with scrupulous fidelity; and the funds it has distributed have had democratic application. Its uniform examinations have materially conduced to the elevation of the standards of the public schools, and have secured full measure of popular approval. It has been free from the wiles of politics and has honestly and economically sought the public good. Of late, however, it has been especially prominent in its democratic activities. Liberal ideas have prevailed, and the enlarged powers conferred upon it, have been used in their behoof. It has popularized the state library, changing it from a mere depositary of books to a reservoir of intelligence, from which currents have flowed to every hamlet. Its traveling libraries are in constant circuit. It has made library law definite and has established a school, in which competent librarians are trained for their calling and the demand for their services is in excess of the supply. It has issued frequent bulletins, conveying accurate information of its plans and operations and of general educational progress. It has been especially vigilant in its inspection of the institutions in its

charge, and has more and more brought them into sympathetic relations with each other. It has fostered university extension, that democratic device by which the higher learning is brought within reach of the humblest citizen whose means will not permit his residence in college, and it has identified itself with all measures having for their object increased educational facilities. To it is notably due the fact that, to-day, in that marvelous exposition of the industries and arts of the world, in that marvelous city of the west, New York makes the most complete and finest of educational exhibits, surpassing even that of Massachusetts; and this is but the visible token of her acknowledged supremacy in the educational field.

Imperial New York! Imperial in the sisterhood of states. Imperial in nature, in the great lakes which girt her borders, in the crystalline beauty of the lakes which gem her surface, in the majesty of her mountain tops and in the rivers that seek the sea! Imperial in manufactures and in commerce, in the metropolis of the continent, soon to be the metropolis of the world; imperial New York, imperial in resources and in population, imperial in all material things, she is also imperial in her educational systems. As the scepter of commerce was transferred from the Rialto to the Zuyder Zee, so the scepter of letters has passed from New England to New York, and here, at least, let us cordially agree that the policy that has made her progressive and enlightened, imperial yet democratic, is one which should be tenaciously adhered to, modified, indeed, when expediency dictates but perpetuated in its essential features—the policy of state identification with the cause of higher education.

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## POPULAR EXPEDIENCY OF STATE AID TO INTER-MEDIATE EDUCATION

HON JOHN DEWITT WARNER, M. C.

It may be assumed at the outset that in New York state, aid to education cannot be based on any paternal idea of fostering culture so-called, or of modifying, in any assumed-to-be-desirable direction, the tendencies or business of our citizens. We take it for granted that each man knows best what he wants and needs,

and that no government can supply a discretion or guidance, which, however well-intentioned, is nearly so advantageous as the aggregate current of individual judgment and enterprise. For the state to attempt to guide or restrain the formation of opinion, as distinguished from the acquisition of knowledge, is treason to the principle of free government.

If I am right, not merely has the federal government nothing whatever to do with education, except to provide it for the District of Columbia and the territories, but the state as well as the nation should limit its activity by the strictest lines of necessity and propriety.

And, therefore, with all respect to the able, sincere and patriotic gentlemen who have advocated a national university, I cannot but believe that such an institution as they have outlined would involve such paternalism that we may well congratulate ourselves that the obstacles in the way are probably insuperable. Nor can I defend compulsory education under state law. And to me it would seem intolerable, to establish, subject to state supervision, a university where students should be trained in religious creeds, political theories, social systems, or in one school as distinguished from another of medicine, music or art. The only legitimate state university is one such as would be the realization of the ideal towards which our regents are striving — that of a corporation which shall supervise the distribution of such aid as the state may give local education, and shall supply and enforce such standards as may authenticate the claim of any person, being educated in the state, to have reached this or that grade of educational attainment. A university dependent on legislature, in any crisis worth considering, would be no better bulwark of sound higher education than a government dependent on a university would be of political progress or security.

I have thus stated my views with no expectation that they will prove universally acceptable and certainly from no wish dogmatically to urge them ; but rather in order, by stating at the outset the standpoint from which I view the discussion, to lessen the risk of misapprehension. And I beg that all I may add shall be taken as a discussion of whether and how — not in its political or paternal functions, but in helping its citizens to do for them-

selves what they naturally would without state aid—the state of New York may legitimately aid intermediate education.

It is first to be noted, that all so-called intermediate education, though by no means covering the field of dogmatic instruction, is strictly within it; that is, it deals with what is inculcated as matter of fact rather than argued or developed as matter of opinion. The distinction is radical though the classification thus suggested would group with so-called intermediate education much of the special and technical learning now taught in our colleges and universities. I have, however, good reasons for asking you to leave this out of consideration :

- 1 The extent and cost of the educational “plant” necessary for special and technical education confine their effective teaching to one or very few centers in any one state, and thus differentiate them sharply in administrative treatment from those branches which are commonly and properly taught in each of the hundred localities where a high school or academy is supported.

- 2 These special and technical studies are more advanced in their very nature and can be greatly aided by perfecting the basis of intermediate education on which they must depend.

- 3 They are not within the scope of the subject allotted me.

As to primary education, it is generally agreed that every child of school age should be given full opportunity, and the question of state aid to primary education is not one of how far the state shall supply whatever is needed to supplement local efforts but rather of how far and how best it can do this without unduly fostering local dependence on state aid. The theory on which this is done is not that a largess is thus given by the state to each individual, but rather that the duties which each owes the state are such that it cannot afford to do otherwise than furnish to each the opportunity to qualify himself to perform them. But when strictly primary education is passed, this rule no longer holds good. In the first place, it is not possible to give more than a primary education to each, and again, it is not the function of the state to undertake public expenditure either to give all an opportunity of which but few can take advantage, or to secure an advantage to the few to whom a more than primary education would be profitable. Public expenditure should be made only

for public purposes, but in the strictest sense are not public interests involved in intermediate education?

So far as it is to the advantage of a man or woman to be qualified to lead the community in social or public affairs, or to have well and deeply laid the foundation for a professional or technical career, this is the business of the individual and not of the state. But on the other hand, the community needs leaders in social and public affairs; it needs good teachers, well qualified clergymen, lawyers, physicians, pharmacists, engineers, architects and machinists. Needing them, it is within the province of the state to provide for them as far as needed; and in no way can this be done half so effectually as by enlisting and holding in this service to the public, through the medium of high schools and academies those who are best fitted to render it. In this fact lies the justification of state expenditure upon intermediate, as distinguished from higher education on the one hand, and primary education on the other.

Interesting, however, as is the general question, the special one that touches us is a much narrower one, the interest of New York state in this matter. Just as in discussing a policy of agriculture allowance must be made for local conditions, so in education, each state must have reference to its special needs and opportunities. In the western ranches the most profitable are those which produce at minimum expense the largest number of fairly good sheep, beeves and horses; and to attempt there the elaborate and expensive detail of an eastern blooded-stock farm would be as unbusinesslike as it would be to use the expensive lands of thickly settled New York county in ranch farming.

So with states. It may be seriously questioned — though it generally is not — whether the educational system of a new state should not long be confined to a thorough system of primary instructions; and it may well be doubted whether its needs for better educated men and women would not be better served by those from other states, or the few who have returned to the service of their own state after attending the best schools elsewhere, than by those whom for a generation its own schools, however well subsidized, can turn out. But for the old state, where cities are crowding each other, where growing centers of

science, literature, arts, finance and general culture are constantly making greater demands upon its educated men; whose capacity for leadership depends upon the number of the citizens of more than primary education who are able to grasp the business that a nation pours at her feet. It is not a question, then, of merely does she need more education, but whether she can afford to render: but, in proportion as she is able to lead those about her, that much more profitable will it be to her to render.

What is New York's position? She is now the center of the industrial, commercial, literary and art development of North America, and is becoming more and more exclusively so. The great mass of our citizens, is to meet the situation of the day, that we thus need for. Other states may have good reason to do so, but of the whole of America, New York is the one state which, from her position, is most bound to promote so-called "higher education," not for the sake of those who are to be trained, but for that of the state, upon keeping and increasing her position of center of the culture and art, of the commerce and industries of the continent.

What should be done? The considerations already suggested point to answer this question. It is not necessary that a certain proportion of our people shall be educated in the lines suggested, but it is important that that proportion be as nearly as possible. To secure the proper number should be given, and this can be done in the limit and manner of the day. The best means to attain this is obvious: to limit state aid to education in direct proportion to the number of students whom, after the most searching test, shall have shown themselves peculiarly fit and well trained: and to require that in such manner as shall offer the maximum of education for such to continue their studies. Under present conditions it is probable that this aid must largely be given in



direct subsidies to the schools themselves, in order to enable them to supply the facilities that are the first and best inducement to students. It would seem, however, that this inducement could be even more appropriately given directly to the few, the merit of whose work has marked them out as those whom it is for the public interests to encourage. This might be done by a special series of certificates, to be given only to those who shall have done specially creditable work, these certificates entitling their bearers to a preference in employment as teachers in our public schools and in the small but increasing number of public positions outside of the schools that must be filled by well educated incumbents. Another and more effectual way would be to reward with scholarships, that is, free tuition, in any institution of advanced learning in the state all those whose work passed above a certain grade of excellence; and perhaps the most effective of all would be the award of fellowships providing not merely tuition but all necessary expenses of college or university study to the comparatively few whose extraordinary merit might warrant such recognition.

But details are out of place. It is sufficient if I have made clear the more obvious reasons why state aid to intermediate education in the several localities of a state may be not merely justified, but demanded, by public considerations coming strictly within the most conservative lines of democratic administration, and not involving either intervention in local affairs or state control of higher education or paternal solicitude for favored individuals; and I shall have more than succeeded if, in addition, I shall have effectively hinted at a few of the special considerations which make it peculiarly to the public interests of New York state to promote local intermediate education by state aid.

Having suggested the outlines of a system such as I have in view, it may not be out of place further to indicate wherein it differs from that now in operation. The main feature of the present system is the subsidizing of local institutions in proportion as they shall turn out students of a certain moderate grade of attainment. The subsidy goes to the school, not to the scholar; its direct effect is largely to increase the inducements

which the school can offer to all students in its locality, rather than to encourage the few who can most profitably do so, to continue their studies. This was probably once necessary and perhaps to a certain extent is yet so. As compared, however, with direct and substantial recognition of the deserving student himself, the present system favors fair intermediate schools rather than first-class students ; and it thus encourages all the mediocrity of a community to attempt advanced education rather than the peculiarly apt to continue their course.

Far be it from me to criticise the ambition that prompts even the dullest to hopeless rivalry for educational honors. Nor would I pass judgment upon the public-spirited community that proposes to tax itself to offer far more than a primary education to all of its children. But this is the business of the individual in the one case and of the locality in the other. And our concern is with the duty and interests of the state alone. Our present system has done a good work ; it is possible that it has been the best practicable for the past. There can, however, be no question that our most crying need is for a comparatively few thoroughly educated men and women, or that one of the most serious defects of our intermediate school system is the enormous waste involved in the time and effort spent to obtain the smattering, that in too many cases is the sum of attainment. I presume the educators present will agree that half of the time spent in our intermediate schools on French, German, Latin and Greek, and a large proportion of that used in other studies is worse than wasted ; I mean sacrificed by those who never get to the point where substantial mental culture or drill, not to say available proficiency, is the result. I am aware that this can not be wholly avoided ; that the margin of waste in educational methods must be large and that there are slight compensations in the most unfortunate cases. My suggestion, however, is not that state aid should be withdrawn from schools, but that in larger proportion it should be given more directly to those whom the public most needs to have educated, distributed to the schools themselves more strictly on a basis of exceptionally high attainment, and expended in greater degree upon university extension that shall be directed exclusively along the line of greatest public concern.

As to the expense, this state can not afford to expend less than whatever is necessary, but as compared with the present system the one proposed would be far more economical. One-quarter of the amount now expended in state subsidy to intermediate schools, if applied directly to the encouragement of those whose attainments were such as to make their further education a proper matter of public concern, would give such opportunities for thorough education of those best fitted to profit by it as have never yet been supplied in any state; and another fourth, if applied to university extension, would turn the whole state into a great university for all the best purposes of such an institution.

I do not even assume, however, that the amount now used in aid of intermediate schools on present lines should be lessened. Our state is growing; the peculiar circumstances that justify state aid to education are daily becoming more marked and the total amount of this aid which should be annually given must steadily increase. It is my suggestion that, for a considerable time to come, the additional amount should be expended in the special directions noted; and I believe the majority of academy and high school principals will agree with me that in that way can their institutions be most effectively prospered. For, after all, the greatest possible amount of direct state aid is immaterial when compared with that appreciation of learning that secures local appropriations and local patronage for local schools; and this appreciation would be specially promoted by the plan proposed.

In closing, I am well aware that I am not a pioneer. The steady development of the state university system by our regents; the reiterated recommendations of our governors, especially of him who is now our chief executive; the prompt, favorable and liberal action of our legislature on the details of legislation that have been called for, all show that the current is steadily flowing in the desired direction. But just as it is the duty of a patriotic citizen to strive for the public weal even against the tide of current opinion, so it should be even more his pleasure to cooperate when the people's cause has become the popular one. In this pleasure I trust may share as many as may be of the educators and legislators of the Empire state — which can thus best be assisted promptly to achieve its manifest destiny.

## HIGHER EDUCATION IN STATE CONSTITUTIONS

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By the end of the sixth decade of our national life nearly all the commonwealths had made express provision in their constitutions for both primary and intermediate education. Most of them were explicit in regarding it as the duty of the state to maintain one "seminary of learning," as they expressed it. This "seminary of learning" later took the form of a college or a university. Their first provision in the constitution was for the public school, as a rule; in their financial administration this fund was guarded by the strongest guarantees, the principal to be kept irreducible and the interest to be kept from diversion of any sort. By a per capita distribution it was proposed that this fund should enable the states to keep the intelligence of all classes at a common minimum level, deemed to be necessary for the perpetuation of a republican form of government.

On this basis, made solid by growth, the great majority of states built their institutions of higher education. In some cases, as in North Carolina and New England, the higher institutions were established first and the development and enlargement of the task of the state conducted downward, as a necessary consequence of the faith in higher education which must be nourished from the lower grades of training. But whether, as in other states, the lower grades were first provided for, or in others still, the higher; or, as in the west, both were inaugurated at the same time, giving all departments of learning a constitutional recognition; still, as a fact of development, this is evident, that, at whatever part of the system the states may have begun in their educational effort they deemed an extension of such effort toward a complete system necessary for the welfare of the body politic. Higher education, as a matter of experience, is with each state a corollary of primary or intermediate education, because the vast administrative work involved in the lower required provision for the training of the highest official and professional management; *vice versa*, the establishing of higher institutions necessitates the provision of intermediate and primary departments so that the representatives of the multitude may pass

into and nourish the higher institutions from the popular life. Wherever the structural process began it could not stop until it became organically complete. Thus the ripest theories of Europe became the practice of the American states. Adam Smith had already argued that the state has a direct interest in the education of the bulk of the people in order to secure political tranquility. Matthews used the same argument in his study of the problems of population. De Tocqueville found it a fact that "in the United States politics are the end and aim of education."

What is it, however, that has thrust education into the realm of the constitutional tasks of the state? The reason assigned above, viz, the *economic*, that for the sake of civil tranquility as a necessary condition on which industry, trade and commerce can thrive, is but one part of the answer.

Bastable's general statement of the case is nearer right: "The recognition of education as one of the tasks of the state was a natural result of the decline of the influence of the church." (*See* Bastable, C. F. *Public finance*, Lond. 1892, p. 86.) This hardly touches the vital cause, but only states the result. The true cause is to be seen in that multiplication of the tasks of society as a whole which followed upon the medieval awakening but took definite shape only in the 18th century. These tasks were ethical, political—including industrial and religious. The European church tethered by the state could exercise no free hand or heart in her work upon them. The state threatened by the discordant church of striving sects could make no sure headway at the tasks of culture. Wisely enough the new American state then differentiated the tasks of the state and church, the one taking the work of education as a civic necessity, the other occupying itself directly with the tasks of moral and religious culture. These aims are expressly recognized as distinct in the American constitutions, and no words are spared to put these functions in their true relation.

Ranked together in this new social adjustment these tasks stand thus:

- 1 At the very bottom of society's life lie the moral principles which govern personal life. To the church is mainly given the task of developing ever-deepening convictions of personal and thus social duty and of giving effective execution to these con-

victions. Only as this is accomplished can public morality and thus public institutional development expand and enlarge its tasks in the realm of practical politics or commerce or industry.

2 The state takes up this result of ethical activity below and uses it in performing her tasks of civic development through her own peculiar institutions, appropriating to every part of her organic life the ethical elements that make commercial systems, national expansion and international festivals realized possibilities. The state appropriates this ethical leaven in order to leaven the political and industrial lump, giving in exchange the freedom and security of conscience, value for value received. But the state is a medium, in which the application of ethical truth to life, in trade, in administration, in industry, effects a development of ethical resources of a much richer variety in the state than the form in which these virtues come from the church life below. The church furnishes the contemplative standards; the state takes these and in practice under new conditions effects their development.

3 Over the life and work of the state lies the realm of religious culture, off-setting the utilitarian effort of the state by a supreme ministration, sending its currents of spiritual life through the body politic down into the underlying stratum of personal morality, thus providing the individual member of society with renewed ideals as the measure of his tasks, individual and social. In the new deal which the state made with the church, the state is buoyed up by the ideal tasks of moral culture from below, and inspired by the hopes of religion from above in her practical tasks of culture. Flanked in this mid-region of moral and religious culture, the state need not fear as long as she nourishes herself from the earth and the skies that lie beneath and above her only to keep her safe and strong.

This analysis of the constitutions of the older states shows that their makers meant no wrong to church or state in assigning to the one the ideal tasks of culture and to the other the practical tasks. Our forefathers knew what they were about, when in their state constitutions they kept declaring as their abiding conviction, that "Religion, morality and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."



They had in mind a symmetrical social development conditioned on freedom and righteousness. The new northwest was then the new open field for the application of their conception of education as related to church and state in which the church should be constitutionally distinct and yet in sympathy with the purposes of the state.

To the social fabric of the northwest the older states contributed three historical elements: New England a strongly religious element, the middle states the strong moral element and the southern states a centralizing civil element. These three entered into the educational life of these young states, and have always found expression in their higher institutions of learning and always will do so.

These common principles are the real ground work of the development of higher institutions. But it is clear that while these principles furnish starting points, they do not govern the direction of such development. The fact is that the constitutions of the states have little to say on the form of development that their higher institutions shall take. There was no common line of growth for the commonwealth. The system of higher education in any state is the outcome of sociological conditions with which the states themselves are not yet very familiar. No constitutional program can be outlined to suit all social temperaments. It is not well that such should be the case; in development variety is as essential as uniformity. Does not the preponderance of the state's higher institutions tend to eliminate the independent college and thus sterilize society of its religious and moral ideas and sentiments? The state cannot undertake to teach religion; it may not even succeed at interpreting the immense volume of the religious experience of the race to the generations. If, after years of disparaging the religious and moral in our higher education we find that political decay has seized the body politic, it will be because we have allowed the schools of the politicians to crowd out the schools of the prophets.

Herein lies the peril of institutional development along any one line to the exclusion of the other two. Is it not possible for the civic life which is already too intensely secularized, dangerously so in fact, to be leavened with the ethical influence of Christianity as a means of political and social reform, through a more



intimate fellowship of state institutions with private religious foundations?

To quote a recent writer: "Civilization is the touchstone of humanity, and especially of humanity in its associative activity. The moment institutional life is inaugurated, the peril is imminent. It is not that civilization is begun in ignorance, as we commonly understand ignorance. Reading and writing are unnatural. Homer was illiterate, but, in an important sense, he was the greatest educator in Greece. It is the lack of divine wisdom, when men have given up the divine fellowship, that is to be deplored. It is through the operation of self-will, of man's will divorced from the will of the Father, that civilization is the revelation of human frailty; and it is in what seems most fixed and stable, in what are apparently the strongest structures of man's creation, that this weakness lurks. To one looking back on the history of any people, this is manifest; but they who build the monuments of human pride are blind to this weakness. Blessed is the people, which, generation after generation, has a school of prophets to break up these structures and to call men back with Isaiah-like yearnings to the love of the living God."

It is in the constitution of the American character, rather than in the constitutions of the states, that we must look for a corrective for this one-sided development in higher education, whenever and wherever it occurs in our civilization. The three tasks of culture must be kept even, like the three strands of a cord braiding into one. To this necessity life is far more sensitive than law. When, for example religion degenerates into politics or intolerance, society finds compensation and correction of that evil drift of things in such a princely gift as Girard college, intrusted to us in such a way as to exclude ecclesiastical representation in its management.

So always, when religion abandons her ideals for the loaves and fishes, society seeks her ideals in morality. When the state is absorbed with the problems of material welfare, given wholly to answering the questions, What shall we eat? or what shall we drink? and wherewithal shall we be fed? then the church responds to the needs of society by such contributions to culture as the University of Chicago, the Catholic university and the American university at Washington. The freedom guaranteed

to religion in these constitutions makes possible such practical expressions of the religious consciousness in higher education. Lastly, when neither church nor state seems to be sufficiently "imbued with the modern spirit" to comprehend the needs of the industrial order, prophets of the new order of things rise up and meet the emergency permanently with such institutions of higher education as the Massachusetts School of Technology, your own Cornell university and the Stanford university of California.

I am inclined to think, therefore, that the best feature of our state constitutions, as regards higher education, is, that they say so little about its formal character and organization; while expressly insisting on its necessity they still leave the field of institutional development open for the religious and the moral impulses to mingle in daily fellowship with civic thought and together meet every well-defined want of higher culture.

Our constitutions are not forms to be filled in, but axioms of civil life to work from, and they enter into our educational development as geometry into the building of our houses.

A comparative study of constitutions in the states would disappoint one who looks into them for an explanation of the existence in each state of its higher institutions of learning. There is only the most distant connection between these institutions and constitutions; and yet the connection is as necessary and as real as it is remote. This is true of the older states, especially where the higher institutions were founded and often developed before the constitutions took their final form of expression and in whose revision it was regarded as unnecessary to incorporate any specific program of educational development. Institutions to be forceful must be free; constitutions to be effective must be fixed. The strength of the former consists, perhaps mainly, in the elasticity of spirit; the strength of the latter lies in the rigid inflexibility of terms on which men may live together in civil society. Virginia's constitution up to 1852 makes no mention of higher education, yet her university has no equal in the extent to which she has given form to educational development particularly in the south and southwest. Connecticut down to 1857 has nothing to say of Yale college in her constitution, except to confirm the charter of 1792.

The constitution of Massachusetts is luminous with this breadth of spirit, through a century and a quarter of growth in higher education :

“ Wisdom and knowledge, as well as virtue, diffused generally among the body of the people, being necessary for the preservation of their rights and liberties, and as these depend on spreading the opportunities and advantages of education in various parts of the country, and among different orders of the people, it shall be the duty of legislatures and magistrates, in all future periods of this commonwealth, to cherish the interest of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries of them : especially the university at Cambridge, public schools and grammar schools in the towns : to encourage private societies and public institutions by rewards and immunities for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trades, manufacturing and a natural history of the country : to countenance and inculcate the principles of humanity and general benevolence, public and private charity, industry and frugality, honesty and punctuality in all their dealings : sincerity, good humor and all social affections and generous sentiments among the people.”

This is one type of constitution, with a cherished institution set in it, founded on religion but the servant of all true needs of man.

Here is another type of constitution, of radical hostility to development of higher education :

“ That every gift, sale or devise of land to any minister, public teacher or preacher of the gospel, as such, or to any religious sect, order or denomination, to or for the support, use or benefit of, or in trust for any minister, public teacher or preacher of the gospel, as such, or any religious sect, order or denomination, and every gift or sale of goods or chattels to go in succession, or to take the place after the death of the seller or donor, to or for the support, use or benefit : and, also, every devise of goods or chattels, to or for the support, use or benefit of any minister, public teacher or preacher of the gospel, as such ; or any religious sect, order or denomination, without the leave of the legislature, shall be void ; except always, any sale, gift, lease or devise of any quantity of land not exceeding five acres, for a church meeting house or other house of worship, or parsonage, or for a burying

ground, which shall be improved, enjoyed or used only for such purpose; or such gift, sale, lease, or devise shall be void." (Maryland.)

In Louisiana we have a third type of constitutional status of higher education, that of state abstention :

"§ 140 The legislature shall have power to pass such laws as may be necessary to the further regulation of the University, and for the promotion of literature and science, but shall be under no obligation to contribute to the support of said University by appropriations."

These three diverse constitutional statements show that higher education has not flourished by reason of but often in spite of what the people have put into their constitutions.

If we were to ask boldly by what right does any institution hold its status in the social structure of American life, the answer would require a thorough, searching and exhaustive analysis of the whole social fabric and the classification of its results on the basis of social worth.

This general *quo warranto* would force us to place man, the individual, personal man, as the only potentially absolutely valuable thing in the whole count.

"Man, with all his errors, is a wonderful being, endowed with incomprehensible grandeur, worthy of his own incessant vigilance and care, worthy to be visited with infinite love from heaven."

From failure to recognize this, our existing systems of education, policy, legislation and social intercourse are poor, narrow and impotent.

The ethical and religious basis of our educational systems whether administered by the state, the church, or by corporate bodies, must be sought for, to understand the real setting given these institutions in the structural organization of the state.

These older constitutions let us into the secret of the origin and growth of higher education in the original states. Nothing in these constitutions can be taken as a cause adequate to account for the actual result. Higher education in the younger states was begotten of the older ones. We must go deeper than the fundamental law of the states; the beginning and the end of all this magnificent development must be found in the hearts of the people.

This accounts for the phenomenal expansion in higher education in some states, as well as the languid growth in other states with excellent constitutional provisions. The poorest state in the union without a word in its constitution about higher education, with common aspirations, common confidence and common industry, the genius of its population, acting in unison, may, in a few decades, create a system of higher institutions that would exceed anything that any state has yet attained to. Without this unison of spirit in the popular life, constitutional provisions may not have even a junk-shop value. (Florida.)

The future of higher education under state guidance is no less promising from this fact, that in their conception of this function of the state the constitutions do not agree or are worth so little. Of the maximum that the people are willing to do, the minimum is often expressed in the constitution. The sentiments and habits of the people determine the high water mark of their educational achievements. If this be the true analysis of the causes of growth of higher education in the states, and if the formal embodiment of constitutional provisions be useful only to keep public interest from sinking into indifference and educational lethargy or to place these institutions out of the range of partisan impulses, then there are some healthful considerations to follow, in the connection of these institutions with the popular life of the state.

The first of these is this:

1 That higher education, however well endowed, should not be allowed, even in the state's own institutions, to depend for its perpetuity and yearly support upon the politicians of the state. There is no pledge nor constitutional guarantee that a partisan legislature may not repeal. The state legislatures are often filled with majorities out of touch with higher education.

2 The institutions of higher education must ultimately be judged wholly by their social worth in their capacity to arouse the better aspirations in the lives of all classes and conditions of people, thereby animating the body politic with a common purpose and interest. Any state institution that fails to do this puts itself in the attitude of a mendicant at the public purse for a privileged class of people.

3 The primary object the state has, in encouraging or establishing higher institutions of learning, is that it may know itself;

know what it ought to do; know what its people really want and the precise reasons why they want what they do. The getting, formulating and diffusion of that knowledge plus the experience of other peoples on such line, is what every people have a right to expect.

4 On the basis of services rendered to the whole people, higher education need have no fears of democracy, whose abiding purpose is in line with all that is noblest and best in all education. Whatever is not of this, it would be a gain to lose forever from our institutional life.

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## RELATIONS OF THE STATE TO SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION

### GROUND ON WHICH STATE AID IS GIVEN TO ACADEMIES, HIGH SCHOOLS AND LIBRARIES

#### Discussion

**Prin. A. C. Hill** — I suppose I am about the only sinner left since the Hon. Mr Fitch has been converted. I resent, however, being called a Don Quixote, for he was a fool and I do not profess to be one. Moreover, I deprecate the charge of being narrow-minded on this subject, for I think I have as liberal and exalted a view of education as any man on this floor. I believe in the broadest education of all the people, but I do not believe it is the duty or the province of the state to provide all the education that is demanded. I have no desire to fight with wind-mills and no personal antagonism to high schools and state universities. I am in sympathy with their work and many of their teachers are my personal friends.

But we are to-day speaking of the question of the abstract right and wrong, or the expediency of the present tendency of the state in the field of education. On this question I have a strong conviction that it is both unjust and inexpedient for the state to provide anything more than elementary education for the people. It is un-American. Citizens of a republic should be taught to rely on themselves and not on the government. Parents should be made to realize that it is as much their duty to educate their children as to feed and clothe them. The result of the pernicious doctrine that the state should support

the individual is seen everywhere in our government, state and national.

In the second place, it is perilous to intrust all education to the state: You all know what kind of legislators we have, how corrupt the fountains of law and justice are becoming. Can we afford to intrust the sacred duty of educating the people to such an agency? The highest interests of public education in New York state recently demanded the retention of Hon. Andrew S. Draper as superintendent of public instruction, but what did that count when the opposite party went into power? The government is not fit to control higher education.

Again, it is not necessary that the state should provide higher education. We need doctors, lawyers, teachers and ministers, but it is not necessary for the state to educate them in order that the demand may be met. If a teacher is needed, it is only necessary to fix on the requirements and offer an adequate salary and one is forthcoming. So in every other line. The great schools and universities of the country have been established and sustained by private munificence and the income from term bills. Had the state not interfered in the matter we should have had a magnificent system of endowed secondary schools in the state of New York, adequate to the needs and holding up a high standard of instruction. What schools set the standard of secondary education, if not the endowed schools of New England? What state universities can compare with Yale and Harvard and the new University of Chicago, all founded and equipped by private munificence?

Neither on grounds of justice or expediency, as I view it, can the assumption of higher education by the state be justified.

**Prin. O. B. Rhodes**—There is a Socratic dialogue called *Lysis* held by the great educator with two Athenian boys just outside the walls of Athens. I cannot now recall precisely the admirable English of Prof. Jowett but it runs something like this: Will not the bystanders go away and say, "Here is a jest; you two boys and I an old boy have been discussing about friendship and we have not as yet been able to discover what is a friend." I am afraid the bystanders here will go away feeling that we have been discussing all the afternoon about the



state and education and have not been able to discover so much as what is the state. I do not intend to supply the lack of that conception. I bear in mind the famous warning of the great Burke; "Metaphysics cannot live without definitions, but prudence is cautious how she defines." I am not rash enough to rush in where abler and better men fear to tread.

But for me the state is no abstract, metaphysical entity born of the brains of administrative nihilists. It is no mysterious something existing over against the individual against which Gen. Hawley protested only yesterday at Woodstock. Neither is it some transcendental New Jerusalem built without the sound of pickaxe or hammer, let down out of heaven for the astonishment and protection of the individual. I do not know what the state is if it be not, as Prof. Huxley defines it, "the corporate reason of the community." I do not know what form it takes if it be not a few functioning in a corporate capacity for all.

Sir Frederick Pollock after canvassing all the historical theories of politics raises the cry, "Back to Aristotle!" And everybody knows the great philosopher's definition of man as a political animal. The state is a natural, not an artificial, organization. Man is born into the state as he is born into the family. He is born into obligations toward others and they find themselves under obligations toward him.

If the state originates in the instinct of self-preservation for protection it is continued for the enlargement of human welfare. It exists according to Aristotle not simply for life, but for living nobly. It is according to Burke, as already quoted by Senator Edwards, "a partnership in every virtue and in all perfection." In the state, in the words of Robinson and Brewster of early New England fame, "we are knit together in a most strict and sacred bond and covenant by virtue whereof we hold ourselves strictly tied to all care of each other's good and of the whole."

Now the rule of action for the state in this supreme matter of education is not one of abstract right and mere legality. Sir Frederick Pollock after his severe examination of historical theories comes to this conclusion: "I fail to see good warrant of either reason or experience for limiting the corporate activity of a nation by hard and fast rules." It is a question of expediency. "It is," cried Burke at the time of the American revolution, "not

what a lawyer tells me I *may* do, but what humanity, reason, and justice tell me I *ought* to do." And to Burke's political philosophy we Americans of all nations ought to pay deference. "The question with me," he said to English legislators in regard to us, "is not whether you have a *right* to render your people miserable, but whether it is not your *interest* to make them happy." By this philosophy the question for us is not whether it is within abstract right and legality to leave the people ignorant, but whether it is within our power and for our interest to make them intelligent. I do not know what conception of the state others may hold. I deprecate as earnestly as Principal Hill the tendency to paternalism, to make demands upon the state for nearly everything. But in this great cause of universal welfare, the state alone is strong enough to guarantee stable, permanent and efficient action. There is an earnest demand for unification, but where is the unifier? There is an urgent call for adequate supervision, but where is the supervisor? I want a state strong enough not only to protect my life and property, under the shadow of whose wing I may find refuge when these are in danger, but strong, wise and sympathetic enough to aid me in my efforts to live nobly, to protect my intellectual interests from the dangers that lurk in the hiding places of ignorance and vice.

**Senator J. T. Edwards, Baltimore** — The last speaker quoted from the dialogues of Plato a remark in regard to the importance of defining the term, State. Will it not be well for us also to come to a common understanding of the word, Education? What is the education which the state requires and should promote? Is it simply the elementary training given by primary and grammar schools? That is largely a discipline of memory, and surely not likely to secure adequate mental discipline or symmetrical development. Education is power, physical, mental and moral. A free state requires in its citizens power to think and to do. It has been said that a vast majority of boys and girls leave school before they are 15 years of age. Granted; is that reason why the state should foster solely the education which they require? Quite the contrary. If higher education means a greater measure of power and to obtain it should become the

exclusive privilege of the rich or of those able to pay for it, then, by such limitation the way would be prepared for the establishment of an odious aristocracy of government as well as of society. Give every child an opportunity to become whatever he is fitted for, to attain such unfolding of his powers as will make him most useful as a member of the body politic.

Under our present system all pupils do not attend the high school or academy, but they *may* do so. In what numerous ways the state, which means the people, secures its returns for making liberal provisions for education may not always be readily traced, but depend upon it, those rewards are certain. So thought our fathers. Such has been the testimony of experience. Liberty, morality, capacity for self-government, invention, arts, literature and the refinements of life have sprung from this fruitful source. If it is wise for a state to develop those natural resources which will become of general advantage, far more solicitous should it be to make abundant provision for the unfolding of noble character, and the development of that intellectual and moral power which is the mightiest agency in enriching and ennobling a nation.

The gentleman who opened this discussion made two statements which we should not accept as correct. First, he declared that the character of the legislature is usually such that the members are not fit to decide the great questions of higher education. In this he is utterly mistaken. The abundant provision for education which has been made from year to year by that body, the noble pride they have almost always shown in caring for our schools and the high degree of excellence which secondary education has attained under their fostering care contradict this slander.

The second statement was equally erroneous. Government, he claims, can only express the will of the majority, and the majority are ignorant and unqualified to decide educational questions, therefore higher learning should be left to the molding and determining influence of a favored intellectual few. Away with such a doctrine! It is undemocratic and untrue. The people, whom Abraham Lincoln called "the plain common people," know better than the gentleman thinks, what is wise and well for them. I venture the assertion that there is nothing which these educators present have heard more frequently in their long

experience than this statement made by poor men and women, that they regretted their own lack of early opportunities and were desirous of giving to their children, though at great sacrifice, the blessing of a good education. It has been one of your most pathetic experiences to see the zeal and unselfishness with which they have fulfilled this determination. The common people do know what they want and are willing to pay generously for higher learning. They have more than once shown themselves superior to so-called leaders in promptly and wisely acting upon great public questions. The crack of Concord rifles was heard months before the declaration of independence. Messages came to the continental congress from village and farm, saying, "Strike! we are ready!" Patrick Henry, with impassioned eloquence, urged, "Our brethren are already in the field, why stand we here idle?" Thus too, in our late civil war, while men in high position stood irresolute and weak, the "plain common people" cried, "We are coming!" and to the amazement of mankind showed an intelligent appreciation of the crisis, and a sublime willingness to defend our institutions even at the hazard of their lives. Be assured the people know their rights, "and knowing dare maintain." Ask them what they think of the proposition not to give all of our people the opportunity to secure a good education. Ask the villages and towns which have established union schools, what they think of the proposition to abolish them.

During my experience of 22 years as principal of an academy in this state, I have watched with delight the multiplication and growth of high schools. 20 of them in that time have been organized around me within a radius of 60 miles. I have dedicated several of their beautiful buildings. Sometimes persons have said to me, "We wonder that you enjoy this. Do not these schools cut off the rivulets which supply your own school?" I have always answered "I should consider myself a fraud and a sneak did I not rejoice in the prosperity and high ambition of these communities which seek to secure superior educational advantages for all, rich and poor alike."

High schools are better than armies and forts. They are the cheap defense of the state. Ask any of these 20 communities what they would think of a proposition to close their high schools. I know that the answer would be an indignant refusal.

This university represents 507 institutions for higher learning. Are not these union schools, academies and high schools, which are the people's colleges, the pride of the communities where they flourish, the fine flower and fruitage of their best progress? Such is the result of my observation. I believe our people would most emphatically reject any proposition to withdraw state aid from secondary schools. They will fondly cherish and defend that beneficent system of common schools and high schools which opens to them the treasures of knowledge and provides generously for the intellectual needs of all the sons and daughters of the state.

**Sup't John Kennedy** — I rise to welcome Regent Fitch back to the fold. This discussion has been an able and exhaustive one. It has gone back to first principles — to Herbert Spencer, Rousseau and Plato. Yet the discussion is an anachronism. The state is carrying on *secondary* and higher education within such limitations as seem to it expedient. Of its right to do so, it seems no longer in doubt. Nor is this right challenged by a following that is at all formidable. Nevertheless the discussion has been a fine gymnastic; and we are indebted to the state superintendent's report for a delightful afternoon. While this seems the sound of mimic war, yet there was a time when the discussion of the high school question was real war; and I want to pay Mr Fitch the compliment of saying that he was one of the most formidable antagonists that the friends of public higher education have ever encountered. In those days when he was under the fascination of *laissez faire* he descended upon an unsuspecting body of pedagogues at Watkins Glen and filled them with genuine consternation. Armed to the teeth with *laissez faire*, the "voluntary principle," "the perversion of history," etc. he produced a veritable Wilson's Creek rout. He got the school masters on the run. Then what Mr Fitch called the excrescence on our school system seemed about to be excised; the Rochester high school was abolished; the Utica high school was condemned, its death warrant was signed; Albany, Binghamton and other high schools were menaced. There seemed a general toppling over of things, for which Mr Fitch could claim the immediate credit.

Fortunately, the teachers regained their *morale* at last; they returned to the charge and put to flight the hosts of *laissez faire*

and the voluntary principle, and established forever the right of the state to teach whatever it pleases. The question, in my opinion, will not reopen. We have watched 16 years for the ablest refutation of the ablest attack. It took Fitch to demolish Fitch; and those two brilliant and masterly efforts from the most extremely opposite points of view by the same man, will stand among the most remarkable things in the history of polemic oratory. Mr Fitch was a terrible antagonist; he will be a powerful friend.

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Wednesday evening, July 5.

## THE UNIVERSITIES AND THE CHURCHES

PROF. RICHARD T. ELY, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

The relations of state and church have occupied the attention of profound thinkers for centuries, and it can not be said that an entirely satisfactory adjustment has yet been found. It is indeed natural enough that difficulties should arise between state and church precisely because these are the two grandest and the most beneficent institutions known to man. Both are indispensable to human welfare, and yet each one covers so nearly the whole of life that it must touch the other at a thousand points. The church has to do with morals; so has the state; the church has to do with the family; so has the state; the church has to do with education; so has the state. There are a few far reaching illustrations, but they are sufficient to show that the relations of church and state can not be fully settled by any brief formula. "Separation of church and state," is a phrase easily uttered, but it has never been applied in such a manner as to give entire satisfaction. The principle of separation is the principle which is called distinctively the American principle. It has been applied variously in different parts of the American union, and while undoubtedly the principle itself receives the assent of the vast majority of Americans, dissatisfaction arises at many points. It will probably be admitted that the educational field is the one in which there has been the most pronounced controversy concerning questions which touch both the state and the church in their relations, and it may not be too much to say that this controversy has in recent years tended to grow in vehemence as well



as in its extent. The claims of the church are in the main well grounded and equally so are the claims of the state. Both have vital interests at stake, and the welfare of humanity demands the cooperation of both. Can not the claims of both be satisfied without a departure from the best American traditions? It seems to me that this is possible, and I wish to offer for discussion a plan applicable particularly to the higher educational institutions; viz, the colleges and universities.

It is proposed that various religious denominations should group their educational efforts, so far as these touch the higher education, around the state universities of the country and such non-sectarian institutions as Cornell university in this state. These efforts should include the formation of Christian associations of young men and women and other like societies; the establishment of gild houses, with reading rooms and libraries, the foundation of dormitories to furnish homes for the students of the universities. With these dormitories should be connected educational features. This is my plan in brief, and I shall endeavor to show that it will be beneficial alike to church and state.

The plan itself is so simple that its very simplicity is likely to conceal its far reaching import unless careful consideration is given to it. Dormitories are an old historical institution which give an immense hold on the affections of students. Any religious denomination or group of denominations desiring to do so may now erect dormitories adjacent to the grounds of any state university. Students of any and all denominations may be invited to find in these dormitories homes. These religious homes would be under the control of trustees appointed by their founders or their supporters, and they could frame any rules for their government which they might see fit. Those entering these homes would do so with a full knowledge of the rules, whether they included attendance upon morning prayers and participation in other religious exercises or not.

A fully equipped home, as I take it, should have at its head a man of learning and piety, a strong man calculated to influence the young; and this man, called principal possibly or otherwise suitably designated, should receive a salary at least equal to that of any professor in a college or university to which the home should become an adjunct. To this principal, with possibly assistants,



should be committed by the trustees of the home, instruction in church history, evidences of Christianity, and any other subjects which might be regarded as of practical importance to the denomination under whose auspices it existed. If this denomination were not already amply provided with theological seminaries, or if any existing theological seminary could be removed to the seat of the state university — or any other university in question, — it would be eminently desirable to develop a theological seminary in connection with the home. The home itself could bear the name of some religious light or of its founder. It could also be built as a memorial.

It will be asked whether the dormitories or homes are needed and if established, whether they will meet a real demand. I can give a positive answer in the affirmative so far as the University of Wisconsin is concerned, and I think an affirmative answer safe so far as every state university in the country is concerned; and there are state universities in every state in the union except a few on or near the Atlantic seaboard. Of course these dormitories would be made attractive homes and their accommodations offered at reasonable prices. Properly equipped and well governed they would meet the warm approval of students as well as the hearty endorsement of faculties and other authorities of the universities.

It is maintained that this plan of cooperation of the churches with the public life as manifested in educational institutions would lead to a larger, fuller, deeper religious life, softening sectarian asperities and quickening all desirable activities.

Great thinkers like Adam Smith, who have advocated religious freedom, have dreaded the results of sectarianism, and Adam Smith proposed that "some sort of probation even in the higher and more difficult sciences" should "be undergone by every person before he should be permitted to exercise any liberal profession or before he could be received as a candidate for any honorable office of trust or profit." The plan which is here proposed is far better than that suggested by Adam Smith, if one must make a choice between them, although the two are not incompatible. Thomas Jefferson, the American thinker, elaborated a somewhat similar plan in connection with the University of Virginia. In a letter dated November 2, 1822, he uses these words: "In our annual report to the legislature, after stating

the constitutional reasons against the public establishment of any religious instruction, we suggest the expediency of encouraging the different religious sects to establish each for itself a professorship of their own tenets, on the confines of the university, so near that their students may attend the lectures there, and have the free use of our libraries and every other accommodation we can give them; preserving, however, their independence of us and of each other. This fills the chasm objected to ours, as a defect in an institution professing to give instruction in all useful sciences. I think the invitation will be accepted by some sects from candid intentions, and by others from jealousy and rivalry. And by bringing the sects together and mixing them with the mass of other students, we can soften their asperities, liberalize and neutralize their prejudices, and make the general religion a religion of peace, reason and morality."

The plan which I have offered is simply an elaboration of that offered by Thomas Jefferson. To him, whatever one may otherwise think of him, will not be denied many fruitful ideas.

Let us examine this plan somewhat more carefully from the standpoint of the church. It is admitted that the desire of the religious denominations to exercise an influence upon the education of youth is praiseworthy. What is claimed is that they can do their work far better in connection with public educational institutions, especially in the case of colleges and universities. It is not proposed at the present time to discuss the question of the common schools, but it is simply asserted that least of all is there need of separate denominational institutions for the higher education.

The denominational institutions in the country are, with notable exceptions — and I wish by repetition to emphasize the fact that there are notable exceptions — poor institutions, doing perhaps directly as much harm as good by diverting youth from superior institutions by appeals to sectarian loyalty, and indirectly doing vastly more harm than good by impeding the development of superior institutions and by cultivating a small spirit. Probably few in the east realize how narrow an outlook on life is given by many a sectarian college in our west. The minor denominational college must give inferior instruction because its means are so limited. When one of my colleagues visited a sectarian institu-

tion in an adjoining state, the college took a holiday, evidently not wishing him to see the kind of work which was going forward. In another neighboring state a college president is scouring the country seeking to find an endowment of \$50,000, something like one sixth of the sum which the University of Wisconsin will spend during the coming year. According to recently compiled statistics of the 300 or 400 so-called colleges in the country, only 75 have an annual income from endowment equal to \$10,000 and only 90 can show an income from all sources of \$20, 00. No matter how much self-sacrificing effort may go into the work of these institutions,—and it is frankly admitted that they represent an immense amount of very noble self-sacrifice,—it is simply impossible that they can do respectable work with such an equipment.

These denominational institutions of the poorer class which in the minds of competent persons are a disgrace to the denominations supporting them, bring no credit to the church. They repel rather than attract the strong characters among the youth. At the same time they are too much inclined to conduct an ignoble war upon public educational institutions, calculated to estrange from the church many who ought to be her strong adherents. It is true, it seems to me, that in the west, the worst enemy of the state universities has been sectarianism and not politics, and even when politics has appeared to be the enemy it has often merely been the tool of sectarianism. The spectacle which has been afforded to ingenuous youth when they have beheld the war of sectarianism upon public activity has not been an edifying one. Let us suppose now that a religious denomination turns frankly about, as many enlightened and earnest religious people would have the religious denominations do, and seeks heartily to support state universities and institutions like Cornell and to cooperate with them. At once such a religious denomination comes before the country in such a manner as to commend it to all true patriots. It says, in effect, We who belong to this denomination will seek not to pull down but to build up the state and what the state can not do on account of its limitations, that we will furnish. The frank adoption of this policy by any religious denomination would add immensely to its prestige and be in keeping with its character as a true American church. At the same time, funds entirely inadequate for the support of rival sectarian colleges

would be quite ample for the support of halls or dormitories such as I have advocated. In Madison, for example, I should say that a quarter of a million dollars would be a sum which would enable a religious denomination to do a very excellent work, although a larger endowment, of course, could be used. About \$150,000 of this sum, it would seem to me, should be expended upon grounds and buildings, and \$100,000 kept for endowment. The building itself would yield an income and this, together with the income of the endowment, would support the principal and needed assistants and also maintain lecture courses. The position of the religious denomination thus cooperating with the state university would be most worthy and dignified. Let me remind you that the colleges at Oxford were originally simply dormitories or homes and were called halls.

The state universities have come to stay. With the exception of a few institutions in the east and perhaps Chicago and Stanford universities, they are to-day the leading universities in the United States and they are rapidly gaining upon all others. The University of Wisconsin has over 1200 students and is growing at the present time at the rate of about 200 a year. The University of Minnesota has some 1500 students and has increased more rapidly in numbers in recent years than any other university in the United States. The University of Michigan has nearly 3000 students. Other state universities have also a large number, and are rapidly gaining ground, and this increase in numbers has been attended with an equally remarkable improvement in quality of work. Here are thousands of young men gathered together. They are the flower of the land. What will the churches do for these young men? Will they leave them alone? Will a church which has 500 students in a state university do nothing for these 500 and devote all its energies and money to 100 in some sectarian college? Surely that is not rational even from a denominational standpoint. The thousands of young men in the state universities are ready and willing to be influenced. They are a rich field which a wise denomination can not permanently refuse to cultivate. The politicians in at least one western state have shown greater wisdom than religious leaders, thus illustrating in one way the saying that "The children of this world are in their generation wiser than the children of light." While religious denominations are holding aloof from

the students in this institution, I have known a political leader carefully to cultivate relations with the students in order to have influence with them later after they have separated and gone out into different parts of the state and the country.

But I would not have you think that even now there is any ground for the charge that state institutions are godless or unfriendly to religion. Such is by no means the case. The professors and regents or trustees of such institutions are mostly earnest church members and in their various denominations take part in the religious life of their respective communities. They are superintendents of Sunday schools, teachers of Bible classes, and without interfering with religious freedom they exercise a very great influence upon students. There are also among students of these institutions voluntary religious associations of many different kinds, and from them go into the ministry and mission field earnest men and women. Having been connected with two denominational institutions as well as a state university, I would claim for the latter at least as high a religious character as for the former. But all this has for the most part happened without the cordial support and cooperation of the church as an organized institution.

The funds which are already used by the different religious denominations of the country would be quite ample to carry out fully and efficiently the plan elaborated, and if there were any surplus surely there is need for all the money which the church can raise. Are there not mission fields in every part of the world which are destitute? Is not Macedonia ever crying out: Come over and help us? Are there not colleges in Asia Minor and China and elsewhere which need help? Are there not the slums of cities crying out for light and reproaching in their misery the church and causing some to doubt Christianity? Is there not enough and more than enough work for the church to do which the state will not and indeed can not do?

I would before leaving the special consideration of the subject from the standpoint of the church put forward the claim that the plan which I have advocated will tend to the unity of Christendom which is now so earnestly longed for by Christian people. It might not remove all denominational lines, and to many this does not seem desirable, but bringing into hearty

cooperation with public institutions the various religious denominations, they would cultivate a unity in action and would in time discover whether an organic unity is desirable or not.

I claim for this plan also the merit that it would elevate public life. The great evil at the present time in the United States is that the forces of good are too split up. There is in our country always a desire on the part of the majority for good government, but there is little unity among those who constitute this majority. This grouping of churches about the state would give us unity with variety, and the public life which is now too often debased would be ennobled. The great trouble with us is that the state does not receive our affections. Our treasure is elsewhere and where our treasure is there also is our heart. Our interests are too diverse. We are engaged in various business enterprises like railways, gas works, electric lighting works, etc., which have interests by no means identical with those of the public, and even in education we have erected a means of division in the denominational college. We win money in industries which must fight the state and then give money to sectarian institutions which continue to fight the state. What kind of a public life have we a right to expect under such circumstances? The measure which I propose would tend to strengthen public institutions, to induce men and women to make generous gifts to them and thus to bring to the state that feeling, that warm affection, which the noblest patriots have ever cherished.

Something has already been accomplished in the direction advocated, and the plan outlined has the cordial support of many careful and experienced thinkers on educational topics. The views of Thomas Jefferson have already been quoted. His plans with reference to the University of Virginia have not as yet been fully carried out. Yet there is a certain grouping of the churches about the institution. Professor Noah K. Davis of the University of Virginia writes me as follows: "Our practice here, which has been pursued for 40 or more years, is to appoint a chaplain for two years, in turn a methodist, a baptist, a presbyterian and an episcopalian, who is supported by voluntary contributions of professors and students. He devotes his whole time to the university, holding regular Sunday and week-day services. His efforts are seconded by our college Young Men's Christian asso-



ciation, the oldest in the world. The plan works well and we are not troubled with sectarianism."

Another state university, the University of Michigan, has been inclined to dispute the claim of the University of Virginia to the oldest college Young Men's Christian association, and the University of Michigan has perhaps even to a larger extent secured the cooperation of the churches. Various denominations have established halls of one kind and another at Ann Arbor, the seat of the University of Michigan, although no one has gone so far as I have advocated in this paper. At Ann Arbor, the protestant episcopal church seems to have done more than any other religious denomination along this line, and the results appear to be most gratifying. While writing this address there lies before me a journal containing a paper prepared by Rev. H. Tatlock, the rector of the episcopal church at Ann Arbor. He claims that there are more members of his church at Ann Arbor than the combined number of students at Trinity, Hobart, Kenyon and the University of the South, which are the four largest protestant episcopal colleges in the United States. They have at Ann Arbor a hall called Harris hall, named after the late bishop of the diocese, and lectureships called the Baldwin and Slocum lectureships, named by their founders. A bequest of \$10,000 was recently made, it appears, to the hall, and there is an appeal for an increased endowment. Mr Tatlock states that one religious denomination is to open a theological school at Ann Arbor during the coming fall and he urges his own church to establish there what Bishop Harris saw in a vision, namely, "a school of the prophets." I will quote a short paragraph from Mr Tatlock to show his views of the wisdom of what has been done from his standpoint as a clergyman: "It is the duty of the church in her corporate capacity to be a city set on a hill. It is the duty of the church to exercise foresight and energy, to seize and to hold every strategic point, to take possession of the heights, to set her light on high places. There are many proofs of wisdom in the administration of the church in this diocese. In the laying of the foundation and in the rearing of the superstructure of our city of God, there is abundant evidence of the presence of the spirit of wisdom and understanding. But in recent years, as it seems to me, nothing that the church in



Michigan has done gives fuller proof of the presence of this spirit than the establishing of the church hall and gild in connection with our great university at Ann Arbor."

A beginning along this line has also been made at Boulder, the seat of the University of Colorado. There has been established there, under private auspices, a divinity school, the design of which is to make use of the facilities supplied by the state university and to cooperate with it in every proper manner. This divinity school is mentioned in the circulars of the University of Colorado.

One of the most remarkable educational institutions in the United States is one in the work of which I am about to participate. I refer to Chautauqua, where to-morrow I shall have the honor of beginning a course of instruction. Chautauqua furnishes a fine illustration of the principle for which I am contending. We find at Chautauqua variety in unity. The presbyterians, congregationalists and the methodists have already their headquarters there, and the episcopalians are about to erect a building for their headquarters. Other religious denominations have also established headquarters at Chautauqua. They cultivate there their denominational life, and they unite together frequently for common worship and participate in education and recreation. I believe no enlightened member of any denomination represented at Chautauqua will claim that his denomination has suffered. On the contrary I think he will say that this spectacle of the union of Christians is highly beneficial to all who participate in the life there.

Canada also, as I understand, affords a fine illustration. Different religious schools seem to be grouped about the University of Toronto. The protestant episcopalians have a divinity school at Toronto called Wycliffe college in affiliation with Toronto university, and a few years ago it was announced that the methodists intended to move their college from Cobourg to Toronto and establish a strong divinity school there. I quote the words of Dr Withrow in regard to this movement: "By this act the educational policy of the methodist church undergoes a great change, and we believe will receive a new impulse and a wider development on a higher plane. It no longer holds itself aloof as a denominational college, but enters into intimate association with the national university in the endeavor to develop one

of the broadest and best equipped institutions of higher learning on the continent. Its students will meet and mingle with those of the other churches, and in the intimate association of college life will cultivate broader principles and more genial fellowship. The friends of education anticipate for it an eminent success in unsealing founts of liberality hitherto unknown and in greatly promoting the interests of higher education by surrounding with an atmosphere of religious sympathy and cooperation the central university."

The congregationalists of England have indorsed a policy like this by establishing a theological seminary, viz, Mansfield college at Oxford; and I think eminent leaders of the Roman catholic church will admit that I have conceded everything which they claim with respect to education.

The state universities, and I doubt not institutions like Cornell,—and I might also mention here in particular the University of Pennsylvania,—are more than ready to assist in every way in bringing about cordial cooperation between church and state in education. I quote from letters from President Northrop of the University of Minnesota and President Jesse of the University of Missouri. President Northrop writes as follows: "My view has always been that Christian people should help to make the university what it ought to be and should utilize it to the fullest extent in educating their children. The university would thus be kept essentially Christian in its influence, the churches would not be burdened with the support of special church institutions except for theology, and even theological seminaries should be so placed locally that the students could receive much needed instruction in the university. The churches by building special church homes for the students of their faith could watch over the lambs of their flock and give them all the special or denominational training they desire. I do not undertake to make comparisons as to the value of the education got at the university and that gained in a denominational college. But I certainly know no reason why the former should not be at least as good as the latter. If it be so, and the churches can have their students trained in the university without cost, what possible reason is there for exhausting the resources of the churches in running a lot of unnecessary colleges?"

President Jesse writes: "It would be a good thing if the churches would sell out even at a sacrifice their colleges and use the proceeds for theological schools near the best universities. We would give the necessary ground on our campus. We teach yearly Hebrew and of course Greek, history, English, etc. On demand we are constantly prepared to give good instruction in Syriac, Aramaic and Phœnician. We had this year a small class in Persian. On demand we would gladly furnish the best instruction in New-testament Greek, ecclesiastical history, etc. In fact, we would be charmed to create a demand for these things in order that we might fill it. Half the money spent in maintaining a moderately good academic college would support a good theological school here."

Many things which I would like to say I have been obliged to pass over. I have not dwelt upon the importance of state universities. I will say, however, that I thoroughly believe in taxation for the support of education of every sort in all its branches, and hold that the position of those who would divide educational institutions into classes, claiming that the state should support one kind and not the other, is entirely illogical as well as unhistorical, indeed, I may say un-American.

Yet I heard some one here to-day say that state aid was un-American. Washington, the Adamses, Jefferson and Monroe favored a national university at Washington. Were they un-American? Was Thomas Jefferson un-American when he founded the University of Virginia? Thomas Jefferson did not think so, but gloried in that university and wished it with the declaration of independence to be remembered with his name. What has been the practice of America? We who live in the northwest can not admit that a few states east of Ohio and north of Virginia shall tell what is American. In the early history of this country even those states contributed taxation for the support of the university and with the exception of those few states, every state in the American Union is taxed to-day for the support of higher education. Are they not American? Is Michigan not American? Are Wisconsin, Nebraska and Missouri not American? Is the title American to be restricted to the practice of New York and Massachusetts? I can not admit it for a moment.

I would like, if there were time, to say something about what constitutes paternalism. Is the state something apart from us, over us, doing things for us or do we ourselves act through the state? Where do the resources of the state come from and who determine its activity? If we ourselves act through the state I consider it a noble kind of self-help. This is paternalism, when the people have no trust in themselves; when they fold their arms and say we are not good nor wise nor competent enough to establish our own educational institutions and we hope some kind millionaire will do it for us. In the meantime we fold our arms and wait for somebody to help us. That is paternalism and a very bad kind of paternalism. The gifts of the rich are welcome; we have never refused them in Wisconsin. They are not refused in Michigan or Minnesota. But let us not rely simply on rich men, but rather help ourselves and then if rich men will help us to help ourselves that is desirable. If I could choose I would rather the state of Wisconsin should give its \$300,000 a year to the university than to have it come entirely from some rich man. I would not have any one take from the state that burden, or rather privilege, of supporting education in all its branches. If the University of Wisconsin had been supported by some multimillionaire through all these years, Wisconsin would not be where it is to-day in civilization. But this support has been an education and a fine one to the people of Wisconsin as it has been to the people of Michigan and Minnesota. I glory in what my adopted state of Wisconsin is doing. I glory in the fact that her legislators and farmers and day laborers wish the university to enjoy an income of \$300,000 a year largely from taxation. I glory in the fact that the highest salary paid by the state of Wisconsin is paid to the president of the university of Wisconsin, a higher salary than received by any judge or by the governor of the commonwealth. If some of you in New York could go to these northwestern states and see what we are doing there, you would come back and wish perhaps that your Cornell university were not almost, but entirely a state university supported like the University of Michigan by a tax of perhaps one-sixth of a mill on all property in the state. And do the people approve of it or is it something done against their will? I would like to see a politician in the state of Wisconsin who would openly

attack the state university by appealing to the wage receivers and farmers. Not long ago I went into a field and talked with two men who were digging out stumps. I asked them whether they objected to paying taxes for the support of the state university. They said "No indeed, we are glad to pay the taxes," for they knew that, although they and perhaps their children would never go to state university, it was doing more than anything else in the state of Wisconsin for the little red school house at the country cross roads. As has been said by another speaker to-day the good results from education come from above and not from below. You can say we will have flourishing primary schools and none other; but if you do your primary schools will be very inferior.

Through a mistaken policy, private and sectarian foundations have been brought into existence resulting in the educational chaos from which we are struggling to emerge. We must recognize the situation. We can not make *tabula rasa* and begin from the beginning, but must build on foundations already laid and I urge the hearty cooperation of the best private and denominational schools with public educational institutions for the attainment of common ends, namely, for the suppression of quackery and pretense and for the encouragement of sound learning. I think that it is practicable to bring about such cooperation. By no means do I advocate an iconoclastic policy with respect to religious schools. Many of these institutions which, if we were making a beginning I would not regard as desirable, have accomplished much. They have associated with them long history and tender traditions and must be used in building up the educational system in this country. I have myself been associated a good part of my life with private foundations, and attended as a student two denominational colleges for which I have affection. I have recently tried in a small way to assist a college under denominational auspices and have in mind a strictly denominational college to which I would like to make a donation. I can even conceive myself in the service of a university under denominational auspices and serving it faithfully, diligently. I mention this to show that I recognize the facts with which we have to deal and to avoid misunderstanding. I would say to the

churches, cooperate so far as practicable with the public institutions; foster your strongest denominational schools, bringing about consolidation where possible and allowing the weak and inefficient to die out.

We have heard much of the free church in the free state. I would add to the rallying cry, "The free state and the free church," the free university, the university with freedom in teaching, freedom in learning and freedom in worshipping.

In the free state the free university allied to the free church will give us a glorious civilization.

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### Appendix

#### MEMORANDUM IN REGARD TO THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO AND THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN THE PROVINCE OF ONTARIO

BY REV J. P. SHERATON, D. D., PRINCIPAL OF WYCLIFFE COLLEGE,  
TORONTO, ONTARIO<sup>1</sup>

1 The University of Toronto is the capstone of the educational system of Ontario, a free, undenominational, graded system. There are separate schools for Roman catholics, saddled on the province in the Confederation compact. Roman catholics can pay to these, instead of to the public schools; but many prefer the public schools, their own being notoriously inferior.

2 The University of Toronto originated in large grants of land made by the legislature of Upper Canada. But the house of representatives at that time had no power to carry out its intention. There was no responsible government. The church of England was established. The disposal of the grant was in the hands of the council of state, one member of which was Dr Strachan, first bishop of Toronto. The new institution was called King's college, for which a royal charter was procured. It was exclusively church of England and every student and teacher was required to subscribe to the 39 articles. The provisions of the charter were rigidly sectarian. The church of Scotland, (presbyterian) in self-defense established the University of Queens at Kingston, and the methodists Victoria university at Cobourg.

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<sup>1</sup> Sent with letter of June 28, 1893.



3 At length came the revolution in Canada by which the "family compact" was destroyed, the church of England disestablished and King's college "secularized" and brought into harmony with the intentions of the legislature who originally gave it its endowments. All this was achieved under the leadership of loyal lay members of the church of England, notably the Hon. Robert Baldwin. The University of Toronto passed through many vicissitudes till it reached its present form. Attempts have been made at different times to draw in the denominational universities. A few years ago a system of federation was inaugurated and under it Victoria university has been removed to Toronto and become federated to the provincial university.

4 When King's college was "secularized" and the provincial university established on the present undenominational basis, Bishop Strachan, instead of accepting the situation and planting his theological college beside the provincial university, procured from England money and a royal charter and established the University of Trinity college on a strictly denominational basis and in armed rivalry to the provincial institution. After some 40 years, Trinity college has between 50 and 60 students in arts and theology, while the University of Toronto has over 800 students in arts alone, of whom 150 or more, are episcopalians.

5 The University of Toronto has federated with it Knox college, (presbyterian) Wycliffe college, (Church of England) St Michael's college, (Roman catholic) and Victoria college, (methodist). Take Wycliffe college as an illustration,— we have : (1) Representation on the university senate and a voice in all matters relating to the curriculum and government of the university ; (2) Certain options in the arts curriculum, (*see the Calendar*), e. g. Biblical Greek for classical Greek in third and fourth years in pass course. This needs to be judiciously restrained. A few options are helpful; any abuse would be detrimental; (3) The advantage of all the university can give us in the department of arts, not only for regular, but also for occasional students who may take only a portion of the arts curriculum. All our means are devoted to theological education. The fees are very small in the university ; \$20 a year covers all ordinary lectures. (4) We exercise a strong influence in the university and over students of



our own church. This can be greatly increased; e. g. I have a Bible class for university students. We admit university students into our residence. (5) A strong, broadening and healthy influence is exerted on our students. They gain in largeness of view and breadth of sympathy by free associations with others.

Experience strongly confirms me in the view that our policy is best from every point of view; best in the interests of the student and his education, best in the denominational interest from any right standpoint, best in the general cause of education and its advancement.

I stand against the narrow religionist on the one hand, who dreads scientific research and curtails freedom, and, on the other hand, against the narrow scientists, who confound healthy Christian influence with clericalism.

We are straitened by want of means; but if I had a million of dollars, I would oppose a denominational university. I could use the whole of it wisely in equipping a large theological college, in establishing lectureships in ethics, connection of science and religion, Bible instruction for undergraduates in arts; establishing tutorships for backward men; establishing bursaries and scholarships, especially to encourage theological students to take a full arts course, in building residences for church of England arts students, and in providing means for wholesome social intercourse etc. Oh, the possibilities are unlimited.

FROM JAMES H. CANFIELD, CHANCELLOR OF THE UNIVERSITY OF  
NEBRASKA<sup>1</sup>

I have printed nothing on the subject to which you refer, except fugitive matter in the press. This I have not kept and I do not know where to put my hand on it.

For 20 years, I have advocated strenuously in the four new states with which I have been connected, the very doctrine which you set forth. You are preeminently right in your position. It is wise from an economic standpoint, from an educational standpoint, and from an ecclesiastical standpoint; and it is the only wise course, in my judgment, which the

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<sup>1</sup> Quoted from letter of July 1, 1893.

churches can possibly follow. A tithe of the money which they expend annually in the maintenance of inferior schools would build superb church homes, aid indigent students, and throw an influence about state institutions that would be valuable in the extreme. Had such a course been pursued in Nebraska, we should have three thousand students in the university to-day; to say nothing of the additional equipment which would be possible because of the interest of all classes in the state in their own institution.

The day is coming and coming rapidly, in which the people will recognize the fact that state education (by which I mean education as a function of the state, maintained and directed and supervised by the state), is the greatest, the most powerful factor in forming a true and lasting democracy.

If the use of my name in any way whatever will be of assistance to you, quote me as approving your most ultra positions.

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## COORDINATION IN EDUCATION FOR MEN AND WOMEN

PRES. CHARLES F. THWING, WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY, CLEVELAND, O.

Coordinate education represents a college for men as a part of a university and a college for women as a part of a university; each college complete in itself, each able to exist without the other, but both under one general administration, both dwelling in one scholastic atmosphere, both united in loyalty to the same ideals and joined in pursuit of these ideals by similar methods. Coordinate education is not coeducation, for the men and women do not recite in the same classes. Coordinate education is not separate education, for the teachers of the college for men teach also in the college for women and the teachers of the college for women teach also in the college for men; the libraries are shared in common, and the administration of the two is identical. Coordinate education is not the annex system, for each college is able to live without the other's aid; neither is subordinate, each is coordinate.

Coeducation possesses certain advantages; it is subject to certain disadvantages. Separate education is likewise gifted and likewise limited. I venture to indulge the belief that coordinate

education has certain of the advantages of coeducation and of separate education, with few of the disadvantages of either.

Coeducation has the advantage of economy. Numbers increase pecuniary cheapness. Many of the colleges of the west were opened to both men and women because the church or the state could not afford two colleges in a single commonwealth.

Coeducation tends, I think, to make the students who are men more courteous and gracious; it trains in certain respects the gentlemen. Coeducation also, I think, tends to promote the pure moral type. Association with young women of noble character makes resistance to certain temptations by young men less difficult. For young women, too, coeducation has advantages. It develops the forceful type, a type which the woman who is to make her way in the world should embody. I am also inclined to think that the nervous health of women in the coeducational college is better than in the separate institution. I judge, though holding the judgment with diffidence that women in the coeducational college are less inclined to fret and worry and to get "rattled" than in the college for themselves alone. These advantages of coeducation are certainly of great worth.

Among the disadvantages of coeducation I venture to suggest that coeducation tends to make the boy a little girlish, the man a little womanish, the girl a little boyish, the woman a little manish. I am also so bold as to inquire whether in the coeducational college there is any lack of that fine chivalric bearing of men toward women, that combination of dignified reserve and graciousness in which one delights. In the same interrogative mood I also ask whether the women thus placed and trained have a similar dignified reserve and self-poise? But whatever answer one may give to these questions, each will agree that the coeducational college does promote love making. But we might differ as to which side, whether of advantage or of disadvantage, this fact should be placed on. It is certainly well, I believe, and it is certainly pleasant, I know, from the masculine heart, for young people to fall in love. The family is founded on the exclusive love of a man for a woman, on the exclusive love of a woman for a man. But I do not think it is well for them to fall in love while in college. Love making, love giving, love receiving do not promote scholarship usually. Those who conjugate *amo* specially in the present tense and in particular in the first person plural of this tense

outside of the recitation room in low whispers, do not find it easy to conjugate it in the recitation room in clear tones. This matter of love, too, is one which most mothers and fathers like to have a hand in. They are keenly conscious of their helplessness; but as a mother said lately whose daughter is a student in a college for both men and women, "I am perfectly willing for my daughter to come to love a man as I have done; but it is only fair to her and to her parents that we should know something about this crisis." I have been told of one far-famed coeducational college in which the day following commencement was set apart as the day of weddings. Therefore the charming opportunity for falling in love we ought possibly to set down on the debit side of the coeducational college.

Possibly also this fact belongs in the same account; that a teacher would feel more free to teach certain subjects to women alone or to men alone than to both. I can not well think of a subject which I would not as willingly teach to women as to men, were each alone; but I can easily think of certain subjects in archæology, psychology, biology, which students would prefer to discuss alone.

It is also probably true that the coeducational college is more difficult to administer than the separate and is the more difficult in proportion to the emphasis placed on the *co*. For there are degrees in coeducation: the assembling of women and men in the same recitation room 15 hours a week, coming to the room from homes widely scattered in a great city and returning to these homes is quite unlike women and men dwelling on the same campus in a small town, eating at the same table three times a day, Jack sitting by the side of Jill and Jill by the side of Jack, and holding common social and fraternity relations. In colleges where the *co* of the coeducation is emphasized the administration needs to be of a very personal kind yet without espionage, firm without hardness, kindly without weakness, ever promotive of a worthy independence in the student. It is to be said that, though with possible exceptions, the state university, which is and ought to be coeducational, attempts little supervision of its women; the denominational college does exercise careful and constant supervision.

I now turn to separate education. The advantages and disadvantages of separate education are not quite the same with those of coeducation. I am inclined to believe that in the separate college we are able to train women of a type of larger and sweeter graciousness, of a delicacy and bloom a little finer, and also that the type of manhood here cultured is a little larger, stronger and more dignified. But it is at once to be said that the life tends toward the monastic form and the monastic form is not the best in either college or church. This fact I feel deeply in respect to certain of our colleges for women; their parks and their ponds tend to emphasize their remoteness from human relationship, and specially from relationship with the masculine part of human kind.

But I am dwelling too long on the premises of my simple argument. Let me repeat my proposition that coordinate education has certain advantages of both separate education and of coeducation and is free from certain disadvantages of either. Coordination is as economical as coeducation, in case the number of students is sufficient to require two teachers in the chief studies. If the students are not thus numerous the teacher is obliged to double his hours of work or the college to hire two teachers: either method is expensive. Coordination develops the masculine part of the boy or the feminine part of the girl as does separate education, for in the ordinary relations the two sets of students are distinct. It also does not promote the monastic type for the endeavor is made to put the social relations of young men and young women on the basis of humanity. Both were human beings before they were student beings and will be human beings longer. In the one university in which this coordinate system prevails, the relations of 200 students are, I venture to say, simply ideal. Coordination is sufficiently close to coeducation to discipline the element of force which women whose life is to be more or less public should have. Coordination under this condition promotes a very sane health and healthfulness; it eliminates nervousness. Coordination promotes a high and broad scholarship; it offers no occasion for unwise squeamishness; its conditions are fine and delicate. It does not tempt to love giving or love receiving any more than humanity itself. It is a method more easy to administer than the coeducational. The students are not brought into relations so intimate that even

wisest parents can ask questions of anxiety. The method allures and invites that natural and happy association of college men and women which wisest parents and college officers approve. The method also promotes a university spirit which the woman's college as usually constituted and circumstanced is not able to foster.

Shall I be thought too bold and personal if I here cease these abstract statements and illustrate the truth in the brief history of the College for women of Western Reserve university at Cleveland? This college began to offer instruction in the fall of 1888; but it was not until the fall of 1892 that it was housed in buildings of its own. These buildings are now only two; one built by Mrs Richard M. Hunt contains recitation rooms, library, gymnasium, offices and a home for students. In the year just closed it has had the following number of students in each class: Senior five, junior nine, sophomore nine, freshman 40.

These students have received instruction from no less than 17 persons. In the next year it is planned for the students to receive instruction from more than 20 persons. These 20 persons represent bachelor degrees from no less than a dozen different American colleges, and represent no less than eight doctor degrees received from Leipsic, Erlangen, Bonn, Yale, Johns Hopkins. The work in these studies has been interchanged or will be in the next college year with the work of Adelbert college; Greek with Greek, one teacher in each college, German with German, one teacher in each college, English with English, two teachers in each college, and chemistry with chemistry. The work in certain studies has not been exchanged. One reason is that, though students in a woman's college will welcome men as teachers, it may be questioned whether students in a college for men have yet become willing to welcome women as teachers. The time will come, I am sure, when young men in college will thus welcome older women and when we shall repeat the history of the University of Bologna in the American college: that time hastens but it is yet to dawn.

These two colleges, Adelbert and the College for women, have had in round numbers 100 students each this last year. Their buildings are situated about four minutes walk apart, on each side of Euclid avenue, and each in or near beautiful parks. The

College for women has no special rules ; it has one general rule which possibly is more of a principle than a rule : this college is designed to form noble character through intellectual training and the finest personal associations. When a student comes to the college whose purpose is not one with this aim she does not feel at home and soon retires. Our men in Adelbert college and women in their college meet on the reception evening at the woman's college, under the motherly courtesies of the social head of the Guilford cottage, their home. They do not flirt ; they do not take strolls together in public places, with that peculiar manifestation of a certain sex-consciousness which I notice in coeducational colleges ; they do not make fools of themselves.

I think I may also add that in addition to these two colleges of Western Reserve university, there has been established a graduate school whose reaction on the two colleges whence it sprang will be enriching and inspiring.

From the role of a critic and historian of rather a personal sort, I turn to play the prophet. I venture to say that the coordinate system is the coming system in the American college and university.

The remark is frequent that coeducation is the coming method. The demand is made often, and with force, that the older colleges of New England shall not retain their rich resources for the immediate benefit of only one half the people. One can not but sympathize deeply with the spirit of such an appeal. But I, as often as I am moved by such words find myself whispering to myself that those who make such a demand do not know what they ask : they have no conception of the changes in method, in administration, in equipment, in regulations and rules which must precede any worthy introduction of women as undergraduates in our historic colleges. The demand is born of noble, humanitarian and scholarly purposes, but it is also born without large and comprehensive prevision. I find among the more thoughtful a questioning as to the permanence of the coeducational system in places where any other method is possible. I will not now say that where I find the coeducational system lauded I find there those who are less thoughtful.

I can not believe that the annex system is to be lasting, for it is based on the assumption of dependence of a woman's college



on a man's college; and such dependence neither man nor woman will long stand. The illustration of this method to be seen at both Cambridges is magnificent; but if the professors of Harvard should refuse to give instruction to women, the society for collegiate instruction of women, known as the Annex, would close the door of its charming Fay house. Such dependence is good for neither women nor men, student nor teacher, principal nor subordinate institution.

The coordinate system is easily adjusted to the older college. I believe that it is the method which will finally prevail in the adjustment of Harvard annex to Harvard university. The college for women of Harvard university — it has a good sound, has it not? — will have a faculty of its own; all the belongings of a college; members of its faculty will interchange work with professors in the college for men of Harvard university.

The time has long passed when a failure to assent to coeducation as the best method of college training for women carried with it the impression that one was opposed to college education for women. One can now doubt the wisdom of coeducation and still be a firm believer in woman's rights. One also can send his daughter to a college for women without incurring the risk of suffering the charge that he does not believe in so tough and strong an intellectual training for women as for men. For it is absolute and sheer nonsense to talk about the inferiority of women and the superiority of men, the superiority of women, the inferiority of men; each is superior, each is inferior to the other in certain respects. The absolute system of coeducation is based on the assumption that in point of intellect, of morale, of character, it is best for men and women to receive precisely the same education under the same conditions. The annex system is an illustration of the old doctrine of dependence. The separate system is based in part on the old doctrine of separation of men and women while in college. Coeducation is in part false in its foundation, for women and men are not the same and are not to fulfil all and the same functions in human society. Separate education is also in part unwise in its methods, for it is well for men and women to be together, even while in college in wholesome human relationship. Coordinate education is based on the assumption that women and men have alike brains, hearts, souls

and bodies, sense and senses, and yet the functions of women and men in human society are to be unlike. On this assumption coordinate education begins its work in the American college and university.

#### DISCUSSION

**Prin. A. C. Hill** — The reader of the first paper gave us a novel and interesting definition of paternalism. To me, however, his definition of self-help savors too much of helping one's self to the contents of his neighbor's pocket. The majority may properly vote to take money from its own pocket, but can not without good reason vote to take money from the minority. This is the method of the highwayman. The tyranny of the majority is just as objectionable as the tyranny of the despot.

I will not here enter into a defense of denominational colleges which have been so bitterly assailed. I do not believe, however, there are any sectarian schools, at least not in the east, in the offensive sense that has been intimated. But I think the speaker of the evening has overlooked a very important fact regarding religious instruction, viz, that it depends largely, if not wholly, on the atmosphere of the school, on the influence of the Christian teacher, exerted in a hundred nameless ways. Formal instruction in religious dogma is not what is expected of a Christian school. The system proposed for uniting religious instruction with education under state control will meet with serious objection from those who still believe in Christianity, because the teachers in the state institutions may be atheists and their influence, unconsciously or openly, would be more powerful to destroy belief than that of the gentleman in charge of the boys out of the classroom to cultivate it. The power of a sneer is blasting.

### ANNUAL REPORTS ON SPECIFIC TOPICS

#### TEACHERS TENURE OF OFFICE

**Prin. C. T. R. Smith** — In examining the very valuable reports on the schools of Prussia and France made for the department of public instruction a few years ago by Mr James Russell Parsons — reports by the way well worth the most careful study by principals and superintendents — perhaps the most prominent point of superiority of these foreign schools as compared with

our own is the comparative permanence of the teacher's official tenure. Whether because of our characteristic American restlessness, or the not infrequent opportunities which in this country tempt teachers out of the profession, or want of proper legislation, certain it is that the teacher's tenure is less permanent here than elsewhere. This state of affairs has few if any advantages, while attended with many great evils. It is doubtful whether we are gaining in this matter. A gentleman deeply interested and whose opportunities for observation in states beyond the Mississippi are unsurpassed, said last summer at Saratoga that trustees and boards of education in that region seem to recognize no right whatever of a teacher to be retained in his position on account of faithful work, however satisfactory. The exigencies of politics, even whimsical desire for change, are regarded, he said, as sufficient reason for displacing able, conscientious and hardworking teachers. Even in the east the case is sometimes scarcely different. In a neighboring city within a year, at one meeting of the board of school commissioners, 23 elementary teachers against whom no word of complaint was brought were discharged, avowedly to make places for favorites of newly elected members of the board. No amount of money and material resources expended by the people can make good schools if such a state of affairs exists. Few reforms are more imperatively needed than the establishment of a stable tenure of office for teachers.

In the week that has elapsed since this subject was assigned me, I have had but one day for investigation and devoted it to 23 volumes of annual reports for the last three years from the 301 academies in New York, to ascertain our present status. The results can be regarded only as approximations, for unfortunately some are carelessly made. Several show evident inconsistencies that make it doubtful whether all changes in the corps of teachers have been reported. These annual reports ought to be trustworthy and complete. Knowledge of our present situation is the first condition of improvement. These reports show the following changes:

	1889-90	1890-91	1891-92
Principal.....	74	78	60
Preceptress.....	69	71	56
Subordinate teachers.....	266	239	226

That is, about one fourth of the heads of schools and their assistants are changed yearly.

Some encouraging features appear. There were fewer changes the last year than in either of the previous years, a fact which we hope is not accidental. Moreover, though there was not time to tabulate results, changes were far more numerous in small schools than in cities and large villages. This would indicate that removals are not generally due to the spoils system, but to causes more controllable.

What may be done to make the teacher's tenure more permanent? So far as the spoils system is responsible, very little can be accomplished directly; but for those due to ill-judged action on the part of boards of education, would not good be accomplished by an official circular from the board of regents to each board of education on this subject, showing its evils and urging that teachers be retained except for the weightiest reasons? I believe that a large majority of the members of such boards are men of the best intentions, but who do not realize the benefits of permanent tenure nor the evils of the present system. Most of them however have the greatest respect for a communication from the board of regents touching the welfare of the schools under their charge.

Teachers, too, specially young principals, ought to be urged not to resign a position lightly, for a slight increase in salary or other similar advantage. Did you ever watch a boy starting a loaded canal-boat? His puny strength laid upon the boat-hook might seemingly be as well exerted against a mountain side. But the boy simply pushes. Three, five, seven minutes go by and at last a movement is seen; the huge mass is under way and as much energy is now required to check the movement as was needed to start it. So it is with advances in education. One may accomplish much by unremitting "push," if it be upon one object and in one direction, though no change may be perceptible in months or even years.

#### PEDAGOGY

**Prin. R. S. Keyser** — I shall not endeavor, in these few minutes, to give a report of the educational movement of the year. It needs however only a slight examination of educational periodicals to show that the past year has been one of

great pedagogic activity. The interest in educational topics shown by the secular press proves that pedagogic questions are coming to have an important place in the thought of the time. Only a little while ago newspapers spoke patronizingly of education and educators; to-day some of their most thoughtful writing is devoted to educational subjects. It is beginning to be recognized that pedagogy is a science and teaching a profession. The increased attention which the thoughtful public is giving to pedagogy is due in no small measure to the increased honor in which teachers have come to hold their own work. As we have discussed pedagogic problems, realizing their importance and the difficulties which attend their solution, we have helped others to see that education is not a subject on which unqualified persons may pronounce a hasty opinion. A man is no more qualified to decide a question in pedagogy because he has once been at school himself, than to decide a question in medicine because he has been treated by a physician, or in law because he has been the defendant in a law suit. That this is being recognized shows a real advance in education. Even to enumerate subjects of educational discussion during the past year would require more than my allotted time. The whole field has been covered, from details of school construction and petty questions of administration to the most general and sweeping principles of pedagogic psychology. Least has been done in theoretic and scientific pedagogy, in careful elaboration of pedagogic principles; and this is well, for like all generalizations which involve hidden elements, pedagogic principles need to be stated with great caution. As in political economy, if we remove the human and qualifying elements in order to give an unqualified and scientific statement, the principles are too general to be of practical value.

But in applied pedagogy the activity of the time has been really wonderful. There is a call for better school equipment and more skilled supervision; for widening of the course of instruction to meet the varied demands of complex modern life; for more attention to the study of English and to stimulating the observing faculties by more attention to the early study of science; for such revision of the course of study and increased skill in teaching as shall better economize the short and precious

period of school life; for greater attention to both moral and physical training; and above all, for an increased respect for childhood and a more careful study of child nature. Discussions on manual training during the past year have been largely discussions of method. It is quite generally recognized that manual training is established in sufficient places and under sufficiently varied circumstances to give it a fair trial. It is to-day in the hands of friends, and the educational world awaits the result.

An important action has been that of the National educational association in appointing a set of committees to report on what can best be done in secondary schools, and to frame for those schools, if possible, some ideal courses. From the reports of such of these committees as have been made public, these courses promise to be overloaded. A real beginning however has been made in careful and thoughtful study of the subject; and the acknowledgment by college men, who are the great critics of the secondary schools, that the way to determine proper academic work is to study the conditions of the schools themselves is a great advance in education.

No notice of the educational discussion of the time would be complete without mention of the famous articles of Dr Rice in the *Forum* on the school administration of prominent American cities. Dr Rice is spoken of as an educational expert; but these articles seem to show that he is rather a theorizer than a person acquainted with practical educational work. His articles will nevertheless do much good by showing that the value of the school system is determined by the character of the teachers. Nothing will help us so much to raise the standard of our work as a general appreciation of this fact. Pedagogy will be held in honor when its real nature is generally understood.

#### HIGHER EDUCATION OF WOMEN

Prin. H. W. Callahan — In secondary schools the desire to do thorough work for its educational value has been very apparent during the past two years. Strength, not accomplishments, is evidently becoming the end in view. There are fewer calls for the shortest course. French and music do not occupy as prominent a position as formerly. The classes in Latin are larger. Girls are beginning the study of Greek. A greater percentage



of girls are planning to do something for themselves when they finish the high school course. The number deciding to prepare for college has increased during the past year.

During 1891-92 more than 2300 students enrolled at four of the leading colleges for women. This year the number is larger and many were refused admission. On March 15 all the accommodations for next year at Vassar were taken, and this in spite of the fact that a new dormitory of 100 rooms was completed at Christmas. Vassar has now 75 more applicants than the college buildings will accommodate. At Wellesley not half the applicants could be received last year and the entering class numbered 209. The boarding halls at the Baltimore Woman's college were taxed to the utmost. A similar state of affairs is reported at Smith. Applications for entrance to college are being made earlier each year. One college reports students applying for admission two and even three years ahead. This is the condition at the colleges for women.

At Yale university women are now admitted to graduate courses. Scholarships and fellowships will be conferred on the same terms to men and women. Pres. Dwight says, "At the beginning of the academic year 23 young women connected themselves with this department of the university. They represent all the leading colleges which have been established especially for the education of women. Two of them received fellowships, and three scholarships. All of them are pursuing, with much energy and success, the various branches of study to which they have devoted themselves." The corporation of Brown university by vote on Sept. 2, 1891, opened all the university examinations to women; by further vote June 21, 1892, all degrees were opened to women, and on the 23rd of the same month the graduate courses were offered to them. During the past year 45 students have been enrolled. The graduate courses of the university of Pennsylvania can now be taken by women. At Barnard the entrance examinations are identical with those required for admission to Columbia and degrees are conferred by Columbia college. In the university of Virginia, within the last two years, women have been admitted to academic courses. The University of Tennessee has recently given to women all the privileges of the university



and the women of the state are endeavoring to raise funds for a building. The annual register of Hartford theological seminary for 1892-93 contains this item. "The seminary is opened to women on precisely the same terms as to men. This provision is made to meet the needs of women seeking to engage in missionary work at home or abroad, to prepare themselves for Christian teaching or for organized charitable work or to secure any other special training possible in a theological seminary. Women admitted as students are not subject to expense for tuition." Harvard, Yale, Brown, Johns Hopkins, Chicago, Ann Arbor, Cornell, Columbia, Tufts, Leland Stanford, besides many of the state universities are among the institutions which now offer opportunities to women.

In England, Newnham and Girton colleges are doing a great work at Cambridge. Between 1882 and 1890, 94 women completed the work in the mathematical triposes, seven of whom took rank with the wranglers and one in 1890 above the senior wrangler. During the same time 101 finished the course in the classical triposes, 97 in history, 19 in medieval and modern languages. It is worthy of note that the most urgent appeal to Cambridge to confer degrees on women came from New Zealand. The Scotch universities admit women to everything to which men are entitled. Women are not admitted as students to German universities, but the question is being agitated and in reply to a recent note from the government several universities expressed themselves as favoring the admission of women. In Switzerland the university of Zurich has admitted women for nearly 30 years and within two years a Mrs Kempin has been elected to the position of university teacher.

The growing emancipation of women in Turkey is a fact. The traditional veil is becoming transparent. In Constantinople the freedom of women to go and come as they choose seems unrestrained. It is the sentiment of the English speaking population that at the present rate of progress radical changes may be expected in a few years. The American college for girls at Constantinople has no unimportant place in this work.

The graduate career of college women is a matter of interest. Of Wellesley's 734 graduates, 540 have engaged in educational work, 134 have married, 12 are practising physicians, 15 are

trained librarians, 20 are engaged in missionary work. Of the Vassar graduates through the year 1890, 326 have been teachers, 291 have married, 27 have been physicians, 26 writers and four artists. Beside these there are a few in different occupations. At Vassar they report the number going into medicine increasing every year.

The association of collegiate alumnae is a most important factor in advancing the higher education of women. It consists of 1488 college graduates thoroughly organized for uniting alumnae of different institutions for practical educational work. 15 colleges and universities are represented in the membership. There are 13 branches of the association in different parts of the country from Boston to Los Angeles. These branches report independent local work in addition to that of the association. The influence of this body of cultured, energetic women is indicated by the committees in which is centered the life of the organization. There is a bureau of collegiate information, committees on fellowships, endowment of colleges, withdrawals from college, admission to college, educational progress, collegiate administration, study of the wage question, study and development, and bureau of occupation. The statement of what has been accomplished by this association during the past year would be beyond the scope of this report.

#### EDUCATIONAL EXHIBIT AT THE WORLD'S FAIR

**Hon. A. S. Draper** — I have been to Chicago. I congratulate myself that it is done. I am much better off than the rest of you in that particular. Of course I spent some time in the educational exhibit.

Probably no one was more indignant than I at the indifference manifested by the management at Chicago touching the educational exhibit. At the same time, the Lord in some way takes care of his own and out of the tribulations of the location of the exhibit we have after all managed to secure perhaps the most desirable position in Jackson park. Instead of being in an isolated building which of necessity must have been somewhat on one side, it appears in the south gallery of the great manufactures and liberal arts building, which is the very center of the whole exposition.

This exhibit is the most remarkable one in many particulars that has ever been shown on this continent. It is unusually complete and represents all grades of schools from the kindergarten to the university. It shows not only the work of the public schools but that of private and parochial schools as well; and very creditably. The exhibit shows that our school laws are becoming more systematized. Common custom and usages of the school, like common law in judicial matters, is becoming better understood. The educational exhibit stands upon a scientific basis and proceeds from and is related to fixed principles in education more thoroughly and completely than any other we have ever had. The best points of our educational work are manifest in the exhibits of different states and different sections of states more completely and uniformly than ever before. The exhibit is of course largely characterized by the articles which are the product of the industrial side of our school work. Manual training is very manifest all through it; I am not sure but unfairly so. The product of the shop, the article made by hand in the school of whatever grade is of course attractive in such an exhibit, and catches the eye quickly. The common mind as well as that of the trained and experienced educator, will go to the product of the industrial shop more quickly than to that of our school work, which is certainly no less important but must necessarily be presented by manuscript and in bound volumes. But be that as it may, the work of the kindergarten, the primary and elementary school, the secondary school, the college and university is represented in this exhibit with great thoroughness and completeness and great tact as well, and does great credit to the educational work of the country.

It goes without saying that the educational exhibit of the state of New York distances anything else in the exposition. I am confident that the most ardent son or loyal daughter of any other commonwealth in the Union, going through the educational exhibit at Chicago, would say without a moment's hesitation that the state of New York in point of fixed scientific value, comprehensiveness, tact of display and disposition of space is far ahead. Of course Massachusetts crowds us closely, and as is her wont has her light on a hill, with a great big patent reflector behind it; but the educational exhibit of the state of Massachusetts is no

Of the city exhibits I should give the palm to some cities of this state without hesitation, notably the city of Rochester. One person from a city of this state stated and had the material there to illustrate that modern physics and chemistry can be taught with an outlay of apparatus of about \$100 or \$200, all of which he had made himself. The exhibits are well mounted and arranged in alphabetic order. All display the greatest amount of taste and discretion on the part of those in charge. They do not tire of showing the exhibit or answering questions. In nearly all the exhibits they sometimes answer questions and sometimes not, refusing I think rather from ignorance than unwillingness. Teachers should study the educational exhibits, not of any one state but of the various states. If you talk with those in charge of some of the state exhibits they tell you how much their state surpasses others, not only in this but in other things.

I was surprised to find there were no school houses on the ground. Not a single school was in operation, except one where mothers leave their little ones during the day in charge of nurses.

**Pres. J. G. Schurman** — I so heartily corroborate all that has been said by Judge Draper that I can make my remarks very brief. I spent 10 days at Chicago; a short time, but sufficient to take a bird's eye view.

**Judge Draper** — I wish to ask Pres. Schurman if that corroboration includes my statement about the exhibit of the city of Cleveland.

**Pres. Schurman** — I did not see the Cleveland city exhibit. The fact is the New York state exhibit occupies so large a space that one can scarcely see anything else out there. I admire the management of the New York state exhibit, but I have one criticism which I have already made in private to those in charge. New York should have more men in charge. There are at present only four. With such a number there can not be more than one man on the ground at the same time. I have been there when no one was there. The fact is, the educational exhibit, let us say it here among ourselves, is very dry. You have to study things, whereas if you go into the agricultural or manufactures hall, everything falls immediately under observation. I went through the Harvard university exhibit, which is one of the best university exhibits there, and as I looked at it, it

seemed uninteresting, but the gentleman in charge took me about and explained it and I came away immensely instructed. I could not but feel that we in the state of New York should have guides to discharge similar offices. It would make our exhibit vastly more instructive than it can otherwise be.

**Sec. Dewey** — As director of our state exhibit I wish to say that it has been made the headquarters at that end of the grounds for New York educational people. The New York house is at the north end, while this exhibit is very near the administration building, at the extreme south end of the main building, and so is more convenient for most of you as headquarters. There are 20 tables and 60 chairs, with stationery and other conveniences for your use; mail may be addressed there, and there are closets for coats and packages. Please feel free to make the educational exhibit your headquarters on the grounds during your stay at Chicago.

The apparent liberality of space in the New York exhibit is due to the peculiarity in its arrangement. Study will show that we have much more than others to the square foot. The director of another state said to me that if his state had as much space as New York it could make as good an exhibit. I said "How many 8 x 10 photographs do you think our wing frames hold?" He thought there were several hundred. In fact the correct answer was 12,000. New York is so large a state and sent so vast an exhibit that we had to arrange it as compactly as possible. Had we put the contents of our wing frames, bound volumes, portfolios and cabinets on the wall, as many exhibits have done, we should have covered the whole south end of the building. Only by study will you realize its extent; e. g. Cornell university gave up its general exhibit, but at our urgent request contributed a single standard of 100 wing frames each 22 x 28. I heard people say daily "Is that all there is from Cornell?" Now if you will spend an hour over that single standard you will be convinced that it is one of the finest showings there. The Cornell graphic charts give a record of the handling of the land grant from the general government that is simply magnificent. When I see the results of a quarter of a century at Cornell, it seems one of the most impressive things at the fair. But 999 people out of 1000 will fail to study into it and will say it is strange that

Cornell did not make a more creditable exhibit at the world's fair.

Please remember that this exhibit is not simply for the world's fair and to be dissipated on November 1. It was a distinct understanding from the beginning that it should be permanently preserved here in the upper stories of the capitol. Many other exhibitors at Chicago will contribute to our permanent collection so that we shall have the best educational museum in the country.

Many schools that did not contribute to the Chicago exhibit will make a creditable showing here when they see the importance, and do their part for the permanent exhibit. Please bear this in mind as you visit the educational department of the fair and you will get many suggestions as to what you ought to send us from your own institution.

### NATIONAL UNIVERSITY

*Would the establishment of a national university at Washington promote the best interests of higher education in America?*

DR EMILY L. GREGORY, BARNARD COLLEGE

In considering the advantages to be derived from such an institution, one must inquire first, what are the actual educational needs of the country and second, in what manner can their needs best be supplied. There is perhaps a peculiar fitness in the consideration of these questions at the present time, during the season of our triumphant jubilation over our physical prosperity. Even sober-minded and candid men may be excused for a little self-gratulation and even over-weening confidence in the future of a people whose yesterdays are so few, and whose to-morrows seem so fraught with possibilities. We are accustomed to consider ourselves a peculiarly favored people with peculiar institutions. So prevalent and so far-reaching is this opinion that many suppose it should be extended to our systems of education, and that the principles of our government and the circumstances under which these principles are to be worked out are such as to require different educational standards from those adopted by other less favored nations. The rapid growth of physical resources has led to the belief that our mental forces are also of a different caliber and require a different treatment from the old and tested methods.

This feeling has had an influence over all departments of



education from the kindergarten to the university, but specially in the latter has it found its strongest expression. In no other country but America would it be possible to try the experiment now in progress on our western coast. This is not simply the result of our overestimation of the power of money, but behind this lies the honest conviction on the part of many, that a people who have so far excelled all others as to have raised themselves from poverty to affluence by their own exertions, unaided by special intellectual training are also able to work out their own educational systems untrammelled by tradition. That this is a fallacy and a dangerous one may easily be proved.

It is a fact conceded by all writers on political economy that the enormous fortunes which enable private individuals to found institutions are not obtained alone by intellectual acumen on the part of the individual, but result largely from the rapid development of the immense natural resources of the country. We do not mean by this to underrate the ability which lies at the foundation of all individual and social well-being, that of obtaining an abundant supply for physical needs; this is and should be the crucial test of manhood or womanhood, the ability to become at some period of ones life a producer, to the extent, at least, of what an average life must consume.

But while it lies at the foundation, it can by no means be used for the superstructure. Even were it true that the advantages offered by our form of government in connection with our vast territory, were such as to cultivate this ability in an unusual degree, it does not follow that we are thereby fitted for corresponding rapid progress in mental development. On the other hand, the inherited tendency, the atmosphere of traffic and speculation, all the circumstances surrounding our youth, are such as to detract from rather than enhance the opportunity for solid intellectual attainment.

If we are to have scholars and statesmen as well as railroad kings and stock brokers, no royal road to learning has yet been found for our American students, and perhaps no better definition of genius has yet been given than that of Carlyle, "the faculty of taking infinite pains."

Among the evils resulting from this error may be mentioned the deplorable lack of uniformity in our systems, illustrated by



the use, or rather misuse, of terms which ought to be uniform throughout our own country at least. Even were it admitted to be best to set up our own standards independent of those of older nations, it would certainly be desirable that the degree of B. A., for example, should mean the same thing throughout the same state at least. As it is now, only an acquaintance with the individual institution by which this degree is given can furnish any certain information as to what it covers. Liberty is a good thing but order is Heaven's first law.

So also with the word university, there may be some excuse for the entire lack of meaning to which this word has been brought. The ambitious settlers of a new town find it unnecessary, if not impossible, to provide educational advantages for any class except the children of the community. The school house and the church become the educational centers of the new town. Foreseeing its rapid growth, and in order to provide for future exigencies the school becomes a chartered institution with the privilege of granting academic and university degrees. There is a strong probability that not one of the members of the legislative body granting this charter has ever seen a degree or has the slightest familiarity with any course of study which is supposed to precede the granting of the same. The mischief, however, would not be so great were this confined to new towns and western states. For we should then have geographical limitations which are now wanting.

The word specialist illustrates perhaps even better the freedom we have used in fixing our own standards. As used in Europe, this represents a class of persons who have taken such preparatory work as is given in our high schools, then that of a curriculum equivalent to our best colleges, following this with four years in a university in which they have a choice of certain groups of cognate subjects; this again is followed by two or three years restricted generally to three studies. Finishing this successfully the candidate may then be considered a specialist. Comparing this with our use of the term, it is seen at once that not only the word but the thing it is supposed to represent is entirely stripped of all dignity or claim to respect. "The narrowness of the specialist" is an expression due to an entire lack of information in regard to the legitimate use of the word, but it

Assuming then that when we speak of the establishment of a national university it is in the sense of the old and restricted use of the word, that is, an educational institution for students who have already received a thorough training in school and college, the question of its desirability seems to depend largely on the condition of the schools and colleges from which it is to draw its students, and upon the number and equipment of similar institutions already existing in the country. This still remains true even if we construe the term national here to mean one supported by the general government, and thus of the greatest possible material advantage to the advancement of education.

We smile at the simplicity of the farmer suddenly made rich by the discovery of oil wells on his hitherto unproductive farm, when he directs the principal of the boarding school to buy his daughter a capacity at once. After all, is not this quite similar to our efforts to buy a university at once, or, what amounts to the same thing, apply a certain number of millions to the purchase of land, erection of buildings, equipment of libraries and laboratories, and then expect to apply the same means for obtaining capacity, in other words faculty and students?

Not once but several times, has this experiment been tried with varying success. It is a well known fact that Clark university at Worcester opened with a number of departments fully equipped with young and able teachers, offered over 20 fellowships and during the first year at least, obtained but one student. A few years later Chicago university opens, taking nearly the whole teaching force of one of Clark's departments, and meets the question of students by opening preparatory courses.

The new university in California might be cited as another instance of a similar character. The proposition there is, to furnish not only college preparatory training but to begin with the kindergarten, evidently using the word university in its broadest sense, an institution teaching everything.

Here again, it is not our object to discuss the fitness of new methods, nor to criticize the use of language, yet we do claim that if new standards are to be accepted and old terms used in new ways, the people have a right to a clear and just conception of the change of meaning. In no other way can we maintain our claim to the respect of other nations than by an intelligent

appreciation of the natural distinctions of rank in educational matters. And furthermore we also claim that it is not a mere matter of words but one of principle. Those who undertake the direction of educational matters in our country are responsible for the general intelligence of the people as to the desirability of intellectual training.

What wonder that the shrewd business man decries the utility of such courses of training as are given in many of our so-called colleges and universities? It is not so much owing to his incapacity to appreciate the value of the training which comes from sharp mental discipline, but rather to his keenness of perception which enables him to discern that no such training is obtained.

It may be urged with reason that the very evils of which we complain would be remedied by an institution under the direction and control of government officers. If the plan is such as to secure the support of government in adding to the efficiency of our present educational means, it will certainly be welcomed by all friends of progress. It may, however, be questioned whether our present needs are such as to be best supplied in the manner suggested.

Even the most sanguine believers in the power of money, must in view of our past few years experience, be ready to admit that a university means something more than a collection of massive buildings filled with expensive apparatus and books with uncut leaves.

And especially those who are best acquainted with the old and time-honored institutions from which have come the world's leaders in thought and action, know and best understand the slow processes by which such institutions are formed. They are the natural result of the progress of mankind and they can come only by natural processes of growth and development and to insure such growth and development the aid of the government is a most desirable and valuable factor. The argument is not that money is squandered on material adjuncts of educational work, but that it is not applied in the direction to develop best the capacity already in the service. Libraries and laboratories are necessary but they are useless without the intellect whose tools they are.

If the government could be induced to look after and encourage honest, patient, accurate, intellectual labor, beginning where it most needs encouragement, in our colleges preparing students for university work, such labor would make itself felt and command the respect of business men.

Then when this work has made a place for itself and established its claim on the minds as well as on the purses of the men who control our vast material wealth, then the higher and more concentrated work of the specialist toward which university training leads, may also hope to command the respect and support on American soil, that it now receives in foreign countries.

**Pres. J. G. Schurman** — I have not had as much time to consider this subject as I should have desired inasmuch as I did not know that I was to be one of the speakers till a day or two ago. Since that time I have been reflecting on the subject and have found some grounds for a conviction which has been mine for many years, that the interests of education and civilization demand a national university in the United States. Some of yesterday's discussions bear upon this question. Admirable papers and addresses by Senator Edwards, by Regent Fitch, by Congressman Warner, by Prin. Rhodes, by Sup't Kennedy and others, have made clear the duty of the state to furnish not only elementary education but intermediate and higher as well; and the admirable lecture which we listened to last evening from Prof. Ely carries out the logic of those earlier speakers to its ultimate result, and proves that it is the duty of the state to provide the highest education, as is already done by the great majority of states in the Union.

When therefore we discuss a national university, it must be understood that we do not propose to interfere with existing educational agencies, to rival them, much less to subvert them. Those who believe in a national university at Washington under control and maintenance of the federal government, will rejoice to see our public schools, academies and high schools, our colleges and universities supported by the states to a still larger degree than at present; and for one citizen of this great commonwealth I cherish the hope that we may one day have a great state university where the boys and girls of New York can have free of charge those same educational opportunities in the higher realms

the agricultural bureau, with its divisions, meteorological, pomological, zoological and the like; the navy department, with its engineering appliances; the congressional library, the largest on the continent; the great national museum; the Smithsonian institution; the various astronomical appliances and equipments; these and other facilities are already at Washington. They only await organization to supply the equipment which a university devoted to research and investigation absolutely needs. No private university, no state, is likely ever to have equal resources. Clark university set out with an endowment which was considered large; but every one knows that the endowment of Clark university, or of any university in the United States, is inadequate to this work of enlarging the bounds of human knowledge.

It may be said that we are under no obligation as a nation to undertake this work. I repudiate such a proposition. We are a civilized nation, one of the few in the world and I for one am unwilling to say that this great, free republic has no other mission in God's universe than to accumulate wealth and to add to the material comforts and conveniences of the race. We are one of the great organs of modern civilization, and as such are bound not only to maintain intact the glorious inheritances which are ours, but to pass them on with accumulations to succeeding generations. I take therefore the highest moral ground, and say it is our duty to minister to our civilization and to increase those intellectual and ideal goods which constitute its imperishable essence. The glory of a nation is not its wealth or its territory but rather its knowledge and its virtue. Virtue the state can not undertake to produce or to increase. But knowledge the republic can increase by organizing facilities which already exist in the city of Washington.

This plan is not a chimerical one drawn by an unpractical scholar; from the time of Washington to the present day it has been an abiding idea in the minds of the greatest statesmen of this country. In messages to congress, Washington recommended on several occasions the establishment of a national university, and left a large portion of his property as a partial endowment of such an institution. A similar recommendation was made by Pres. Adams, by Pres. Jefferson, by Pres. Madison, by Pres. John

Quincy Adams, and in later years by Pres. Hayes; and as you are aware only three years ago a bill was introduced into the senate by Senator Edmunds looking to the establishment of a national university. This idea has run through our history from the beginning till now; furthermore, the reasons given by Washington remain substantially sound, even to this day. He did not, it is true, insist on the duty of a great nation to enlarge the stock of existing knowledge and contribute its share to the civilization of the race, but he did insist on the importance of the maintenance of higher learning amongst us; he did feel, with his successors, that if the new republic was to take a prominent place among the nations of the world, it could be only by "exalted intellect," to use the phrase which occurs in a report made by a committee of congress on this subject. Pres. Washington pointed out that such a university would also tend to allay sectional feeling and promote a sense of harmony and solidarity throughout our great republic. Though railways and telegraphs have been perhaps a more effectual agency in bringing about this end than even the establishment of a national university would have been, yet all will admit that the presence in the federal capital of scholars and scientists who are drawn from all parts of the country, and are afterward to be leaders in their own spheres, would have a most potent influence in developing this sense of harmony and solidarity of interest on which Washington, after the importance of learning, laid the greatest stress.

We sometimes hear that educated men are lacking in loyalty and public spirit. There may be some ground for the charge, though in my mind there is nothing like the ground for it that is popularly assumed. But if we had a university in our capital supported by the federal government, making use of the educational material now belonging to the government, standing for the highest culture and the increase of knowledge, would not every educated man within our borders feel that there was a new reason for being devoted to the republic; for the republic would mean to him henceforth not merely a piece of ground on which he was born, not merely the republican institutions, valuable as they are, which protect him in his rights and liberties, but it would mean for him also an active agent in the promotion of the highest civilization. I for one am tired of looking to Europe for



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new advances in science and in scholarship. I am willing  
e my sons go there to learn foreign languages, but I hope the  
y is not far distant when every branch of science and scholar-  
ip and all professional training shall be as sedulously and  
fectively cultivated in our republic as anywhere else on the face  
f the earth. For it is by our culture and intelligence that we shall  
be judged by history, and not by the heaping up of wealth.  
I recall the glorious description which Thucydides gives of  
Athens at the time of the Peloponnesian war. He explains why  
the Athenians have shown such spirit, why they are so proud  
of their country and are sacrificing their lives to support her.  
Foremost of all the incentives to patriotism he places the ideal  
goods of art and science and literature and philosophy, which  
Greece, and Athens specially, had contributed to the world. I  
hope this republic of ours, the largest the world has yet seen,  
will some day equal the smallest in its service to higher civiliza-  
tion. Animated by this sense of our national vocation, I believe  
most heartily in the establishment at Washington, under the  
auspices and with the support of the federal government, of a  
national university devoted, not to the teaching of undergraduates,  
but first to the guidance of graduates in research and investiga-  
tion, and, secondly, to the enlargement of learning and scholar-  
ship, the progress of art, science, and philosophy, the elevation of  
professional and industrial pursuits, and, in a word, the promotion  
of civilization and the best interests of humanity.

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## MEMORY IN MATHEMATICAL TEACHING

PROF. J. E. OLIVER, CORNELL UNIVERSITY

Mathematics, like music and poetry, is one of the pursuits for which nature is supposed to have equipped men least equally; but I have been convinced of late that this great apparent inequality may be due, more than we commonly think, to mere differences in memory.

Various indications appear to point to this. I once imagined that the trouble, found in mathematics by so many thoughtful, earnest students, came from lack of interest in work so far removed from ordinary human affairs; but, when enthusiastic and able



students assure me that mathematics is the study they love best and wish to make their specialty and yet that they find other solid studies easier, I must think them handicapped by mere lack of memory for formulæ and the like.

Again, some of the most brilliantly successful teaching of mathematics that I ever knew was by one whose habit was more to evade than to meet this difficulty as to memory. The evasion may or may not have been always wise, but we are just now discussing diagnosis, not treatment.

Possibly, too, the fact, if it be a fact, that most good students master elementary geometry more easily than elementary algebra may be thus explained; for, though geometry is in some respects the harder and more exacting, the need of mechanical memory in it is largely replaced by sight and imagination.

I think I have known even mature men, appreciative, critical and original in their work, who still found serious trouble on the mere memory side. I make this suggestion with some doubt, but hoping that there may be teachers present who will in the coming year observe whether these things are so; for if they are so, they add fresh practical importance to these old ideas:

- 1 Simple memory is only a means to an end; of course often a very important means, yet not the end.

- 2 Therefore memory should be economized; not as some people are said to "economize the truth," but in the sense of putting it where it will do the most good.

- 3 Growing minds are not best trained wholly by squads and disposed of in blocks, under a single hard and fast system, but different cases need different treatment.

- 4 The more philosophical forms of memory may well replace, to a great extent, the more mechanical.

Let us look at each of these points.

- 1 If memory in mathematics be only a means to an end, then what is that end? Such a multitude of studies come crowding into our curricula, each of them having its own claims as regards discipline and outlook, that perhaps we need only consider those educational uses of any study which are more or less peculiar to that study. What, then, are the powers and habits that mathematics can give us exceptionally well? Not mechanical memory, for that is quite as well trained elsewhere; but rather disciplined

concentration of thought; logical clearness and acumen in its two-fold form, that which scrutinizes the separate steps in an argument and that which deals with the argument as a whole; inventiveness as to possible relations or theorems, ingenuity and resource as to methods, and independence in judgment; that intellectual candor which conscientiously refuses to purchase ease at the cost of suppressing a scruple; geometric imagination, revealing so much that is grand as well as beautiful; philosophical imagination, with its grasp of and insight into theories as wholes and its glimpses into their intellectual beauty; substitution of rational for merely verbal metaphysics, as when by the "method of limits" we make the vague concept "infinity" less bewildering though not less grand; correlation of the abstract with the concrete, so that we begin to know what deep reality there may be in the abstract and the ideal. Moreover, with these powers and habits there comes a larger philosophical outlook, and a more intelligent acquaintance with that world of space, time, number and relation into which we are born and which in some sense may be said to underlie the physical universe.

Now these things are of great value; some of them ethically and religiously as well as intellectually, and not only to the individual but to the world. I know that many of them are not commonly reckoned as parts of the outcome of mathematical study. Nevertheless I think it is clear that every one of them can be made so when we do advanced work, and even in great part when we teach college and lower mathematics in the spirit suggested by advanced work; and, indeed, that many of these tendencies are almost peculiar to mathematics because in this science abstractness is so combined with certainty and with extent of development. I say all this not merely to eulogize a favorite study, which would be needless in this presence, but to emphasize the second question, that of economy.

2 How can the results in the directions I have named be made to bear the largest ratio to the outlay of labor, including the labor of memorizing? The most obvious economy is in making a careful selection of the things to be memorized. Some of these things cannot be spared if we would possess anything like a true picture of the general subject; others, though convenient as time-savers when learned, may even prevent the student from

getting that direct and habitual contact with the subject which he needs.

The memorizing of the numbers of the propositions in geometry promotes class room convenience and saves the pupil from citing a later theorem to prove an earlier one; but he would be saved in a better way if, instead, he had to depend upon his sense of the general drift of that argument whereby the successive theorems are built upon one another — unless, indeed, the teacher elects to fix the numbers by aid of this sense and so substitute philosophical for mechanical memory. So with formulæ. The indispensably instructive ones like the binomial theorem will commonly be the ones most easily retained from their symmetry or suggestiveness; unlike the reduction-formulæ for integration, and Gauss's and Napier's analogies in trigonometry which simply save the school-boy the trouble of working out a solution on general principles for himself, as by cutting up his triangle. In ignoring this distinction, the common text-books appear to me very defective. Of course, however, the mere time saver, which is not worth memorizing now, may at a later period of the pupil's progress fall naturally into an important place in the larger picture and be then easily remembered or reproduced.

3 A word as to the different treatment that different cases may need. In every field of mathematics there are results that form, as it were, the primary triangulation without which we get no adequate concept of the lay of the land. These I think the ordinary student should either remember or reproduce at need, without looking them up, and by thus reproducing them often, while if possible using well chosen particular cases as checks, he will more and more dispense with writing down intermediate steps and will finally have learned the results. Yet I think there are students, strong enough in philosophizing power but exceptionally weak in memory, toward whom one might well remit this rule, as to some extent did the successful teacher of whom I have spoken.

4 Finally, as to philosophical memory and ways of memorizing. A philosophical memory seizes by preference upon principles, relations, generalizations, rather than upon separate items; it selects what is characteristic, rather than what is incidental, and the thought rather than the mere symbol, and it utilizes relations

of likeness, unlikeness and symmetry. It proceeds by reviving old logical and imaginative insight, not always completely, but far enough to give us the definite results needed: as when we remember the binomial theorem by recalling that relation of its simplest case to the theory of combinations which is the characteristic thing in the demonstration of that case. Finally, it reproduces things in their natural and instructive order. Recognizing these features of a philosophical memory, I think we can gradually teach others how to obtain them.

Still, every one must sometimes remember in the old dogged way. He must command his memory, "Hold this fast for so long," usually it will be forever, as with fundamental formulæ, or else only for the moment, as in copying. Indeed certain convenient feats of momentary memory should be practised until they become easy, such as holding at once in the mind a moderately complex expression, or an eight or 10 figure number, and making simple transformations without writing.

Let the student learn to make no unreasonable demands of memory, but expect and insist that memory shall obey him. By completeness of attention embracing all details, by clearness of concept, by models when available, by comparing, correlating, transforming and using the things to be remembered so as to get cross associations, and by rapid reviews, much may be done.

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## EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE STUDY OF THE ENGLISH BIBLE

PRES. ARTHUR E. MAIN, ALFRED UNIVERSITY

Pres. Taylor of Andover about a year ago said that while it was for the 16th century to discover the English Bible it remained for the 19th century to rediscover it. Senator Edwards referred yesterday to the testimony of the late Chancellor Curtis that education should be spiritual, and the manner in which these and kindred words were received by the convocation is an advance approval of what I shall say. It may be impossible to separate in thought our religions or Christian sentiments from the consideration of this question; still, in the broadest and truest sense of the term the study of the English Bible is of the highest educational value. Dean Milman said that for the loftiest concep-

burning questions of the day are the sociological. If you would study these in their relation to deep human experiences, go to Isaiah and Amos and hear their words of sympathy for the poor and the suffering, their hot indignation against the injustice of the oppressor; and to the words of the Carpenter of Nazareth which come with all the confidence and power of any testimony that can be given to men from the realm of scientific investigation.

The Bible is one of the most human of books, notwithstanding the fact that its writers wrote as they were moved by the Holy Ghost. Find in Abraham an emigrant who believed in the overruling Providence and who thus became the father of all that believe. Find in Joseph the pure politician; in Moses the grand law giver who, as Prof. Davidson says, caught clear glimpses of divine things beyond which during all these centuries the world has made but little progress. Catch from Elijah something of the inspiring purposes that should mark reformers of the 19th century. Find in David the king, the poet and the penitent sinner; in Proverbs the grandest ethical principles; in the book of Job the profoundest religious philosophy setting forth the experiences, as Pres. Harper says, of a man who came near surrendering to the power of overwhelming sorrow. Let the skeptical, troubled with doubts, read Ecclesiastes and be led to the grand conclusion, that to fear God and keep his commandments is the whole duty of man. In the song of Solomon learn something of the power with which human love enters into the experiences of men. In Isaiah find a man who dares stand in the name of Jehovah in the interests of national righteousness and who caught clearest glimpses of the secret of national glory. Read Jeremiah, the weeping prophet. Find in Nehemiah one of the noblest specimens of patriotism and inspiring leadership that the world has ever known; in John the man who was close to things divine; in Paul one of the most manly men the world has ever seen.

English speaking people are rapidly increasing in numbers and power, constituting about one thirteenth of the human race. They rule nearly one third of the world, and America is to be the grand home of the English speaking race. Here we believe, will be seen the highest kind of civilization, and a wide and increasing influence will go forth from our land crowned at last by the great national university so ably and eloquently advocated by Pres. Schurman.

## THE TEACHING SPIRIT

## ITS QUALITIES — ITS FOES — ITS FRIENDS

PRIN. W. K. WICKES, SYRACUSE HIGH SCHOOL

Perhaps I may take it for granted that every person in this goodly company knows the meaning of the term, the teaching spirit. But is there a man or woman here who is wise enough in the mystery of life—for all spirit is life, yea, and all life is mystery—to define it? I pause for a reply. None? Then none have I maligned. At any rate, “for my single self,” I must be content to sketch, briefly, some of the qualities of the teaching spirit, then point out a few of the foes that are constantly assailing the life of that good spirit, and lastly name a few of the friends set for its protection and exaltation. Would that this contemplation might lead us to rise as upon “stepping-stones of our dead selves” to the higher and better things of the intellectual life.

And, first, this teaching spirit is itself a teachable spirit. It has nothing about it of the earth all-owning spirit, as though the whole domain of knowledge was already its secure and sole possession. Its attitude is reverent as it stands face to face with the perplexing problems of human existence. Its aid is that of humility, bending in lowliness, yet eagerness, in the majestic presence of truth. Its prayer is that of the mighty Milton—

“What in me is dark, illumine,  
What is low, raise and support.”

Ah, this is indeed Newton’s child picking up a few pebbles on the shore of truth, knowing its great ocean yet to be undiscovered!

Again, it is a sentimental spirit. This is one of those words of early Roman coinage whose value has become debased by wear and usage of the centuries. But now let us put into it again that sterling worth which M. Taine did when he said, “The proper office of literature is to take note of sentiment, and the higher the sentiment, the higher the literature.” So the teaching spirit must take note of the sentimental, that is, of that which is above the senses and the purely material. It must rise into the realms of mind, and there busy itself with contemplation of these wonders, and from the fields of thought bear away the fragrance and distilment of their noblest sentiments.



And surely this teaching spirit must be a youth-comprehending spirit. I know scarcely any road reaching from the teacher's mind to that of the pupil along which are strewn so many wrecks of misadventured effort. It is the failure of the grown man to comprehend the little child! Yet the speech of the world is ever the other way. It is the child who is ever saying to the man, "I do not understand you," instead of which, ought we not, in all honesty once and again to confess to the child. "We do not understand *you*." In this point there can be no better authority than the poets, no better poet than Wordsworth. To him, the child is the philosopher who has kept his heritage; he is an eye among the blind; on him, rest those truths which we are toiling all our lives to find. Alas! that we so seldom think of looking into the heart of a child to find them. Yet believe me, they may sooner, surer be found there than by peering into the wells of our own knowledge, how deep down soever they may go. At any rate, no teaching spirit is genuine and complete which fails to comprehend the mind and soul of youth.

But needful as this comprehending power is, something more, something greater than that the teaching spirit must possess — namely, the sympathetic spirit. For who has not known teachers who had, in marked degree, an intellectual comprehension of the child-nature, who yet were utter strangers to the possession, or exercise at least, of that kindest quality of sympathy, that key, which unlocks the heart of youth as surely as sunshine unbars the bolts of frost! On this point I confess I feel strongly, and would fain express myself, if I could, as strongly as I feel. But this must suffice. Such a teacher has no business in a school room, no real right to be there. He should be sued for slander-ing sunshine and be dispossessed of his holding by eviction. And may he have, as I once heard a young debater say, "the courage of his evictions." There is no greater alliance between him and the responsive heart of childhood, than between the warm and fragrance-breathing honeysuckle and a cold, frost-bitten icicle.

I may mention only one more token of the teaching spirit, namely, the spirit of mastery. A curious and complex spirit this! It implies, first, mastery over one's self, that ruling of the spirit which is greater than taking a city. Says Herbert Spencer, "The law of egoism is before that of altruism." So, also, in the



pedagogic world a law must be laid down and lived up to for one's self, before any law for, or lordship over another. But, secondly, there must be, for completeness of power, a mastery over youth. Nor do I mean the exhibition of a proud and arrogant Sir Oracle spirit, but rather the exercise of a genial and guiding sway, born of a lowly yet loyal contemplation of truth, the cherishing of noble sentiment, due comprehension of the mind of youth, and an ever active and wise sympathy with the wonderful "spirit of youth."

Now, a spirit so good as this teaching spirit must be when genuinely and thoroughly possessed by the qualities of which I have been speaking, is sure to be assailed by many a foe, and its very life to be put in jeopardy every hour. And these foes are the more dangerous, their detection and defeat the more difficult because they are those of our own intellectual households. Within lurks the enemy, from within is the attack, the citadel is stormed from within. And helping all such enemies are many malign influences from without. Let us name a few of these foes.

Formalism. This is a subtle foe of the teaching spirit. Its approaches are slow and the youthful teacher, unless he has been trained after a most formal and pedantic fashion, is quite unconscious of its presence. But it keeps on its way and its work, until years perhaps have rolled by. Then that same teacher, older, grayer grown finds in the light of some sudden self-revealing, that round about him is a wall of conventionality of whose existence he had not dreamed, that the ramparts of an unyielding conservatism hem him in, a conservatism which Emerson says is a castle set to defend the existing order of things. Let us beware of such a foe. It saps originality, undermines enthusiasm, gives true ambition many a deadly thrust, crying "Let well enough alone."

Sensationalism. Every body knows that this is a sworn foe to all true sanity of mind, that in this ending of the age it has captured the great army of the daily press, and has invaded the sacred precincts of the pulpit. But it is a foe not wholly unknown in pedagogic circles. Now and then the educational world is startled by strange theories, sensationally evolved, dramatically set forth. The theorist forsakes the beaten path, he

clanders to the rocky headlands, the world marks him pursuing his "dim and perilous way" for a little time. Then suddenly he disappears and is forgotten.

Iconoclasm. This is the foe that seeks not simply to conquer and put under foot, but to put utterly out of existence. It is the nihilistic spirit in education. It is bent on destroying all that the fathers have left for our guidance and help. It is the implacable foe of the time gone by. It works in the true iconoclastic spirit, ever pulling down, never caring to rebuild the waste places. Here and there it possesses a teacher. Let him beware of it. If in turn he seeks to destroy what is worthy and good, let us beware of him! To the last syllable of recorded time, if need be, the teaching spirit must defy this foe to the teeth.

Prejudice. Here I wish I could write as with the point of a diamond on all hearts and consciences. For is there any foe to our peace and usefulness so deadly as prejudice? Its quiver is always filled with sharpest of arrows. Now they wound a fellow-teacher, now a parent whom we think overmeddlesome in the matter of his child, our pupil, now a pupil whom heaven has less favored, it would seem, than his fellows. Alas! how many a boy and girl may with reason complain of us that their best efforts were unappreciated, their noblest aspirations checked by some subtle, lurking spirit of prejudice, which we allowed to creep into our minds, thence to shoot out its envenomed darts. To be wholly free from prejudice! Would that not be to do the beneficent work of an angel, and win the plaudit, so dear to every dutiful heart, "Well done, good and faithful servant."

But let us be thankful that this teaching spirit is so good that it has friends as well as foes. Of its many friends I can name but three or four, and very briefly, but they shall be as comprehensive and suggestive as possible.

Cheerfulness. Were this friend to contest the palm with cleanliness as being next to godliness, I think it would bear away the prize. The beggar boy who sits in the sun, his "looped and windowed raggedness" "half concealing, half revealing" a sorry lack of cleanliness, still is, like Tam O'Shanter, "o'er all the ills of life victorious" if only he wears a smile which bespeaks a cheerful and contented spirit. And certainly for the right exercise of the true teaching spirit, cheerfulness is indispensable.

This is the only blessed lightning-rod agent in existence, diverting into harmless channels the mischief-meaning bolts of a surcharged schoolroom. Better than that, this is an unchanging, ever-helpful friend, strong to summon a legion of helpers, music, to enchain coltish youth when "fetching mad bounds;" laughter, well-timed "to shake the cobwebs from the brain;" mirth, becoming and wholesome, at once to lighten and to strengthen youthful souls for new contests.

Justice. Here is a friend to the teaching spirit whose decisions and decrees we are too apt to disregard. Yonder, for instance, sits a boy whom we reprove for continued restlessness and idleness, all forgetful that the body is growing so fast that the brain can only sit quiescent by. There sits a girl whose mind is aglow with poetic thought, but to whom a sense of logic is wholly wanting. It will be well to listen for the voice of justice when that pupil comes under the constraint of mathematics. How often, too, the sharp and untempered rebuke goes forth against the use of slang or bad grammar, when justice would whisper in our ear, if she could get it, "Temper that rebuke; home and street are responsible more than childhood, render mercy to whom mercy is due."

Truth. Blessed indeed is that spirit which has truth for its friend! For the truth has such splendid fighting qualities. No wonder that Milton exultantly cries, "Who ever knew truth put to the worst in a free encounter"? And I ask you to notice that the truth of which we now speak, is so broad in its meaning and application as to take in the whole triple nature of man, so broad as to make it fatal to any teacher not to receive it and rely upon it as a steadfast friend. It comprehends the material universe, distinguishing being from seeming; it takes in the mental world and from its harvest fields gathers the grain, burns up the chaff; it holds sway in the spiritual realm, and sends to us the radiant spirit of conscience to our lawgiver, our pathfinder, our light-bearer.

Life. There was never a time in earth's history when life, in its endless diversity, was so completely the friend of the true teaching spirit as in this year of our Lord 1893. It was quaint George Herbert's complaint, two centuries ago, that man was continually treading down in every pathway of nature, the things

clammers to the rocky headlands, the world marks him pursuing his "dim and perilous way" for a little time. Then suddenly he disappears and is forgotten.

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that fain would befriend him. Let us be wiser in our day and generation. Let us welcome life as a friend, turning its constant suggestions, its ceaseless happenings into lessons for the well-being and enrichment of the youth committed to our keeping. For, after all, life, life—its meaning, its destiny—is the great study, before which all others pale and vanish away.

I am well aware that my theme runs not in the channel of our ordinary converse at convocation meetings. But I felt sure that we should hear much about the machinery of our work, and that is well. It is well, also, to remember that mere machinery, no matter how perfect in itself and its adjustments, is useless, until some resistless power, changeful as vapor or subtle as lightning, pours its life into the inert man. Such a power in education, life-possessing, life-dispensing, is the teaching spirit.

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## REGENTS EXAMINATIONS

### SHOULD THE MARCH EXAMINATION BE OMITTED?

**Sec. Dewey**—We found in the June examination the other day, instead of the 40,000 papers required a few years ago, a total of over a quarter million in one week. It has become absolutely impossible for the office force working nights, holidays, and every available minute, to continue the present number of examinations. The quality of the question papers must not be lowered and more time rather than less should be spent in preparation. There is no subject on which the office is so often criticized as that so many examinations are given in the state of New York. Over a half million papers were sent out last year. I think I represent the views of our question board correctly when I say that every man believes heartily in regents examinations but recognizes the danger of having too much of a good thing. The problem is this: we can not reduce the labor of making papers; we can not shut out qualified schools that ask to come into the University; the number is now 507, over 400 taking the examinations. Our only relief is a larger appropriation from the legislature or else the omission of one of the large examinations. The November examination is less used than the others and could be dropped much easier than any other, but as

it requires only a small number of papers, would not give the needed relief; the June examination can not possibly be dropped at the end of the year; the question is therefore between the January and March examinations. In short, shall the March or January examination be dropped. or shall we, that is the convocation, say to the legislature that the best educational interests of the state demand all these examinations, and that in spite of criticisms and attacks we want an extra allowance of state money.

The suggestion was sent out therefore, when we saw the other day that we were swamped, that we should do what the regents, after long discussion, voted to do several years ago; i. e. reduce the examinations to two a year, January and June, omitting the March examination entirely, and so get time to complete the papers of the great January examination before the June papers come in. The principals understand that it is impossible to get returns from the January examination to the schools before the March examination which follows it so closely. We in the office have no plan to advocate. Some of the principals seem to think that we have a pet idea of dropping the March examination. On the contrary we have strained a point under the permissive vote of the regents in granting these examinations in November and March after it was decided to have January and June as the regular times. The result was that instead of reducing the examinations from three to two we succeeded in reducing them from two to five and the last state of that office is worse than the first. This question is not only for principals but for all who care for education in this state: is it a good thing educationally to have so many examinations? If it is agreed that it is really very desirable, New York can afford to pay for the increased work. But the convocation and not the office must make the request and support it by its mature judgment as to the need. The matter is presented to-day in order to give time for thought before its discussion to-morrow morning.

**Prin. D. C. Farr** — I do not want to manifest any apparent haste or anxiety in this discussion, but I feel in common with a large number of my fellow teachers a very strong interest in this question. It is no new question. When it was up for discussion some years ago, I served on the committee to find out the senti-



ment of the principals as to the question of two or three examinations. A communication was sent to every principal and their replies showed that there were twice as many schools in the state desiring three examinations as there were desiring two. I assume that that state of things exists to-day because the conditions are the same.

In the smaller union schools, in rural districts and in the old line academies universally, a large class of students come in November and remain till about April 1. The November examination is worthless because they have not had time to prepare for it, and the time before the January examination is too short; the March examination is the only one that this increasingly large class of pupils can by any possibility enter. Now is it the wish of the educators of this state to shut out every one of that deserving class from any educational benefit whatsoever in these examinations? The thought is monstrous. It will not be tolerated for a single instant. Why is it proposed to do it? Because the appropriation is not sufficiently large to give to those the blessings which they so much need. Is New York state limited in her capacity so that she can not hire some more examiners to do this work? Does the University of the State of New York exist for itself or for the schools of the state? I am sure that every member of the office, every principal, every regent, every member of assembly and every senator will be as one when this question is presented and will do everything possible to secure a larger appropriation. Too many examinations? Many schools want two examinations, in January and in June, but they will not lend their influence to a measure that will deprive some students of that which is their just due. Daniel Webster once said: "It is a small institution, but there are those who love it." These schools may be small and insignificant, but they are dear to the heart of the people of the Empire state. We must have the March examination, for the death or life of these schools depends on it. Strike the March examinations off the list and almost every one of the old line academies dies. If I understand the record of this convocation from the inception of this institution, it was to foster and extend blessing to all parts of the state along these lines; and if we are true to the traditions of the past, if we are true to the spirit of Alexander Hamilton

and the rest of that noble band, we shall never hear it said that we are to lose that which is so precious. I plead for the maintenance of that examination, and I believe that I speak the sentiment, not of a portion of the principals, but of all. Those of us that were in favor of three examinations did all we could to secure the January examination for those that wanted to take the January examination, and I am sure that they will stand shoulder to shoulder with us now when we ask them to be true to our interest and help us by the formation of public sentiment so that we shall maintain that which is so precious to us and so vitally necessary to the interests of these institutions.

As to the educational value of examinations. I believe that examinations are one of the best means of fitting a child for the emergencies of life. Surely three times a year is not too often for such training. Every one of us knows that there is a tremendous amount of admirable work being done in the office; then let us endeavor to increase the appropriation rather than have a single institution drop any examination.

**Prof. H. S. White** — On behalf of the convocation council I move that this question be referred to the principals council and be made a special order for their report to-morrow morning, and that proper notice be given at the afternoon session of this fact.  
*Voted.*

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Thursday afternoon, July 6

## STUDY OF ENGLISH

HAMILTON W. MABIE, EDITOR OF THE OUTLOOK, NEW YORK

I speak as a layman, but I do not apologize on that account because I am reminded that by divine ordinance wisdom sometimes issues from the mouths of babes and sucklings. Moreover, if there is any subject on which every intelligent man ought to be competent to hold and express an opinion it is the use of his own language. If the Greeks had devoted as much time and study to the classical languages of their time, the tongues of Chaldea and Egypt for instance, to the exclusion of the study of their own language, they would not have left either a language or literature which would have caught and held our attention. Not that I mean to express any disapproval of the study of

Greek, in which I believe thoroughly, but rather that in any educational system, emphasis should be laid on our own tongue, since it is through that medium that we convey whatever knowledge we possess and express whatever creative power is in us. If there is anything over which we ought to have the mastery it is surely this most delicate, subtle and prominent of all things; the language which our race creates, which holds its thought, contains its history and expresses its character and life. We are beginning a campaign that is to put the English language foremost among all studies and make it a part, not a section, of education from the moment the child enters the kindergarten to the day when the young man or woman leaves the university; not as a specific study, but as Prof. Hill has said, a part of the expression of every study, involved in it and growing out of it.

Scarcely an eminent literary man or a great writer has not left on record his impressions of his own education. It would be an admirable thing for teachers if somebody would collect these expressions. These men were not educational experts, but something better; they were experts in creative activity; the highest of which men and women are capable. Therefore they represent the highest and most authoritative opinion. If you look through these expressions, you will find a constant recognition of the aid received from great individual teachers and criticism of educational methods and institutions. Indeed I hardly remember a single writer of eminence who, referring to his own college or university, has not spoken of it as if in some way it had failed to supply him with the very thing that he needed most. The point of view of these men is the service which education renders them, and it is their testimony almost without exception that education has failed to help them specifically along the line of their highest effort. I do not say that it has failed to help them in many ways, that it has failed to enrich and strengthen them and give them information and grasp, but it has failed to aid them specifically in the work which they were sent into the world to do. Surely the supreme and final end of education must be to fit man for what God meant him to be; and if it be true that man is a creative being it must stimulate the creative faculty, furnish it with material and give it direction. How often has this happened? Where in any school or college is the creative faculty recognized?

Where in any system of education is room made for the development and the exercise of this very highest of all the faculties of man? It is true that individual teachers like Prof. Peirce of Harvard have made the blackboard the birthplace of mathematics. It is true that great naturalists like Agassiz have appealed to the imagination of their students and have revived for them the dead processes of nature and made nature a living unit. It is true that great teachers of philosophy like Mark Hopkins have vivified and intensified the abstract sciences till they have become living, till they have ceased to be statements of thought. But ought this to be left to individual teachers? Ought it not to be part of the educational system itself? Should we train men to use their perceptive and reflective faculties and then, on this loftiest plane of action and the last stretch of the race which the soul makes, when the ultimate goal is in view, leave them to the specific training of their own natures? You ask how the creative faculty can be developed; how men can be changed from artisans into artists; how education can so train and develop as to add to the resources of life by bringing new things into it. It can be done by training the faculty that creates; that lifts him from the plane of the artisan up to that of the artist. It breaks up life and opens it to him so that he sees it in new phases, and gives him that direction and skill which qualifies him to make these visions real.

It is by training the imagination that the creative faculty is developed. It is by recognition of the supremacy of the imagination that the creative faculty is brought to its full fruition. If there is any faculty which we have failed to understand, it is this same faculty of the imagination. We talk of it as if it were something immortal. We treat it as if it were something outside the range of practical life, while it is the one faculty that makes life endurable. It is when imagination dies out of man, and the artistic instinct with it, that life becomes unendurable. Imagination is the air that we breathe. It is the cause not only of the book of Job and the Greek plays and the plays of Shakspeare and the *Divine comedy* and *Faust* and all other great poems, but it is the cause of the Parthenon, of Westminster abbey, the Brooklyn bridge, the White city on the shores of Lake Michigan, the laws of men and the law of gravity; it is the cause of our

thought of the family, our ideal of the state, our vision of God. There is no law that stands from world to world that is not the direct gift of the imagination. Science makes just as much use of it as poetry, and to science it is just as important as to poetry. Nay, more, it elevates your nearest personal relation out of its drudgery and makes it beautiful. What are historic and legal ties if not read through the eyes of love and discerned by that which is higher than mortal? What is our relation to the state if it be not seen through the eyes of imagination, which develops patriotism and makes us love an invisible and unintelligible concept as if it were a living entity. We neglect the imagination because we do not understand what it is.

But what has this to do with the study of English? How will you train the imagination? If the imagination is creative faculty and if we must train and develop the creative faculty, how are we going to train the imagination? By giving it, as we give every other faculty, the material with which it assimilates and by contact with which it grows. When we want to make an artist we put the young man or young woman into the atmosphere of art; we send him where he can look at great pictures and see noble buildings and the antique statuary of the world, in order that by contact with them he may see the types of beauty so that his mind may be liberated and a standard set before him. Mr Galton in one of his recent books found the negro two grades below the Englishman in social ability, and modern men of all classes and races two grades below the Athenian. There is not one of us who knows what Athens was in its age of creation, in its splendor and range and completeness of creative models, who does not believe that Mr Galton is scientifically correct. A great many elements enter into that problem, but I am sure that one reason why those Athenians throbbed with great creative impulse, leaving their stamp for all time on everything that they touched, was because their imagination was trained from infancy. Remember how the Athenian boy was brought up, how he was nourished in the literature and fables of his race; history was not an abstract science, but the story of a great hero; poetry was not a matter of grammar and philology, but the life of the past. In the great age which produced Dante and Florence it was said that every man in the city could read and that even the

ever comprehended them. It is only when we rise into poetry that we have attained to the greatest action and the highest achievement; for no civilization ever really expresses itself till it does so through some kind of art, and no man is ever really and finally great till he passes through the drudgery of work into the freedom of creative energy.

**Sup't Sherman Williams**—The knowledge of English grammar seems to bear no relation whatever to the pupil's ability to use the language effectively. Some pupils who speak and write exceedingly well know practically nothing of English; these are usually pupils who have inherited the ability, though some who apparently could have inherited very little, have a great deal. These pupils are readers, though perhaps they do not come from reading homes. The conclusion is that through creating a taste for reading good things, a great work can be done for the use of English; to this end we have in our schools a course which begins the first year of the primary and continues throughout. It has four elements the greater part of the way, three all the way. The first year the primary teacher tells the children old mythological stories. Later they read the same things to the pupils. After that the pupils are led to read them for themselves, all the time committing selections to memory. This in brief is the plan: the children read in the presence of the teacher, the teacher reads to them selections, they commit selections to memory and are drilled, not so much in rendering these selections as for what is in them; and, finally, they read at home. We make groups of books, and each pupil must read one book from each of these groups through the year, and must satisfy his teacher that he has read it with some degree of care. We have tried that two years, too short a time to speak positively; but it certainly is promising. It has had wonderful success in changing the character of the children's reading. A boy who inherits very little literary taste has read the past winter, among other things that he was not required to read, Bacon's essays again and again with enjoyment, something I think that the average school boy 17 years of age would not be likely to do. Perhaps it is a somewhat exceptional case, but we have had any number of similar ones. In expression, the work in English has been much better, not so much as far as grammatical expression is concerned, as in thoughtfulness.



I have said all that my experience warrants me in saying, but I am very clear that if that is not the line through which success is to be obtained, I shall have to begin all over again and that I do not know anything.

#### ENGLISH IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

**Sup't M. J. Michael** — There have seemed to be certain relative conditions existing between the college, the secondary schools and the elementary schools. I am reminded of those conditions that must have existed in the garden of Eden when our first parents were confronted with the question of why they had committed original sin. You will remember that Adam was inclined to lay all the blame upon Eve, and Eve, poor creature, referred the whole matter to the serpent, and the serpent, at a loss to know where to place blame, turned upon the heel of his accusers. I am not ready to say that the elementary schools are in the frame of mind that the serpent was supposed to be in, but most of the criticism that has come upon instruction in English seems to have first emanated from the colleges, from there spread to the preparatory schools, and the preparatory schools blame the elementary schools for the faults of pupils coming up to the high schools. This seems manifestly unfair. I can not accept the proposition that elementary instruction in English is wholly at fault for such defective expressions of English as appear in colleges and secondary schools. Sup't Williams has spoken of the causes which I had in mind, ancestral influence, and the diversity of race and social conditions. English instruction in our elementary schools is fairly good; in our large village and city schools it is excellent; many are carrying out the idea that our leader has designated. If students go into the colleges, as Pres. Eliot has told us, unable to express themselves well, the schools should not be blamed for it but rather these causes beyond them. The mixture of German and Irish and English and French blood which often flows through the same veins can not develop a fine command of English. Dr Oliver Wendell Holmes once said that if he had the bringing up of a child he would like to commence with his great-grandfather. So this whole subject of English has to do with ancestral and social conditions.

**Sup't W. R. Prentice** — This is a subject on which I feel deeply; for if the elementary schools of my day had done their



duty I should have been saved from some of the deepest embarrassments of my life. First, however it is easier to teach a child to speak good English in the beginning than after he has learned bad English. Some one asked Richard Grant White where he could learn to speak German like a native. He answered, "Go to Germany and be born again."

The fact that our country swarms with foreigners who can not speak English seems to me an unanswerable argument in favor of compulsory education. I doubt very much whether a man can be a good American citizen who can not speak good English and who is not able to read an English book and write the English language. His knowledge of literature and history is in the language of Europe. Many excellent people have come here, but they have brought Europe with them instead of adopting American institutions.

A few years ago, passing by the tenement houses of a back street in New York city, I saw two mothers, with unkempt hair and untidy clothing, sitting on a front porch, chattering away in a foreign tongue; directly in front of them on a pile of stones three little children were at play. They were little fellows just from the primary department of the school. One of them lost his stone and it fell down. One of them said directly in the best of English, "Go right down, pick up that stone and put it back." That boy will be a loyal American citizen. In the public schools he will learn the history of the United States, he will understand our institutions and learn to love them.

My German washerwoman came to me one day to enter a complaint. She said: "My leetle poy go to school and he learnt the English and he come home and he wont speak German with me at all," and she sat down and wept. I said, "My good woman comfort yourself. That boy will be president of the United States. He is learning English." I am glad to feel that in our public schools, our intermediate and primary teachers are teaching English to those who are hereafter to be American citizens, and who never can be good American citizens unless they understand our institutions.

My experience with regents' examinations began 29 years ago next fall, teaching English grammar; looking back, I see that we did not have to teach English then to have our pupils pass Eng-

lish grammar. I remember when Dr Watkins told me that the next examination would require an essay and I was glad of it. In most graded schools throughout the state English is being taught through its literature. This can be extended; the board of regents can increase the requirements in elementary English. Even more, knowledge of good books can be required. That one little item in our examinations, an essay upon the classics of American scholars, has done more in my estimation to help English in the elementary schools than anything else. I am glad to know that the colleges are requiring a higher standard in English, but when we remember that only about 10 per cent of the pupils in public schools ever enter the high school and that only about 2 per cent of those in high schools go to college, we must not forget our chief duty to the millions who are not reached in college or high school.

I was glad to hear that expression yesterday, that education pulls from above. I am sure that from this convocation the voice of encouragement for this work will go forth. As the kaiser said "German for the Germans," so I say "English and American literature for Americans."

#### ENGLISH IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

PROF. J. M. HART, CORNELL UNIVERSITY

The board of regents, at its January meeting, adopted a resolution requiring three hours a week of instruction in English in every regents' school throughout its entire curriculum. Regarding this measure as conceived and adopted in the interests of sound education, I shall try to indicate briefly what seems to me the best method of securing the results aimed at in the resolution.

1 What is meant here by English? Not mere grammar on the one hand; nor, on the other hand, literature proper. English in the regents' sense means, I take it, the ability to express oneself in writing. Of course we all know that correct grammar is an essential part of good writing. Candidates for admission to the high school are examined in English grammar, but the results of the examination can scarcely be deemed satisfactory. May I suggest that the regents' entrance examination be made longer and more searching, concerning itself less with technical rules and more with the practical observance of the usages of correct

each. As regards any English grammar that may be taught in the high school itself, I think that it can be safely subordinated to the writing hereafter to be mentioned. If this writing is truly practical, if the exercises are numerous and thoroughly corrected for faults of every kind, the faults of grammar will be eradicated with the others. True, a certain amount of instruction in formal grammar is needful, but I would reduce the amount to a minimum, confining it to a clear understanding of subject, object, and predicate, the difference between nominative and oblique cases, the correct position of the adverb in order to avoid ambiguity, the principal parts of the so-called irregular verbs, and the correct use of the auxiliaries. Whatever text-book of grammar be used, let it be moderate in size and used throughout the course. Let it never be laid aside, let the study of grammar never be looked upon as disposed of. With the correction of grammatical blunders should always go a reference to the appropriate section in the grammar, which the pupil is to review by way of penalty. In this way grammatical rules may be converted into realities.

A word or two upon literature. If by literature is meant the reading of master pieces of English thought and feeling, by all means let our high schools have plenty of it. One can scarcely imagine a school in danger of doing too much of that sort of work. But if by literature is meant the systematic historical study of the successive groups of authors that have flourished for centuries in England and America, then I for one have grave misgivings. Can you, in your new curriculum, afford the time for such study? I am certain that you can not. Your high schools have for the most part only a three years' course, and your allotment of time, if I am correct, is not three full hours per week, but only three exercises. Even three full hours for three years would not give you time enough. Within your proposed limits you are to review and enforce English grammar, to impart a taste for and appreciation of good reading, and, last but assuredly not least, you are to train your students in the art of expressing themselves. These three matters will engage all your time and energies.

2 What will be the best way of training the scholar in good expression? All writing is made up of two components: the

writer has something to say, and he says it in a fitting manner. But although these components are easily distinguished in theory as substance and form, in practice we shall do well to treat them as indissoluble. The chief quarrel that I have with text-books and school systems of composition is that they put asunder what our Creator has emphatically joined together, and, having thus divorced substance and form, they devote the greater share of attention to form apart from substance. They train, or try to train, the scholar to formulate ideas and feelings without putting him in the way of getting ideas and feelings.

How do we acquire our stock of thoughts and emotions? There are only two ways known to me: either through reading, or through contact with the actual world. The latter course is not open to the ordinary scholar, for school life is a professed seclusion from the world. Civilized mankind is agreed upon this, that the young are to be trained upon theoretical principles, before being subjected to the wear and tear of life.

Books, then, must be the school medium of acquisition. The statement looks quite simple, but I doubt if any of us perceive its full import. For myself I admit frankly that I am just beginning to grasp the significance. Only within the past year or two have the needs of my present position forced me to inquire after the ways and means of securing good English expression. The more I ponder the problem, the stronger grows my conviction that the only path to good writing lies through good reading. It is the great authors, after all, that are to be your high-school teachers, and your nominal teachers need only play the part of interpreter. From these authors your scholars can learn the value of words, can catch a sense of style, can get an insight into the human spirit. But reading, to effect its object, must be at once intelligent and sympathetic. The scholar is to be taught to recognize in the book put before him, not a mere stitching together of detached sentences in black and white, but the direct message of a human soul to him, the boy in school. The men and women that he reads of are to be to him live men and women. He is to study their characters and judge wherein they approached or departed from the right. This may sound abstruse. Let me make it as concrete and practical as I know how. Your schools are engaged, let us say, to read Shakspeare's

*Julius Caesar.* Is it not possible for the scholar of average intelligence to work out the action of the drama step by step, to show how each cause has its effect, how each effect proceeds from a cause, to recognize the leading traits in Cæsar, Cassius, Brutus, to follow the drift of argument in the speeches of Brutus and Anthony? If *Silas Marner* is the book read, should not the scholar be able to understand just why and how Godfrey Cass is punished, Silas Marner rewarded?

This is reading as it should be. It presupposes a teacher to explain and guide. How reading can be perverted if left without instruction, left to be *crammed* for a college entrance examination, will appear from these warning examples. They are taken from Cornell entrance papers.

"Miles Standish was a great warrior and admired the style of a young woman named Priscilla."

"Cassius was a professed politician and made a paying business of it."

This is reading as it should *not* be. It reveals to us how crude the untutored mind may be, how bitter the need of instruction in English classics, how obvious the connection between vicious writing and vulgar thinking.

I would urge upon you the desirability of making all or nearly all your required writing consist of a re-statement of what the scholar has read. There should be at least one exercise every week, written in the class-room, upon the week's reading, with a monthly summing up of the month's work. It should be the business of the teacher to expound the text, to clear up puzzling words and allusions and to *interest* the scholar in the work. The scholar's business is to learn to see clearly and repeat accurately.

It is a marvel how the cultivation of the faculty of vision is neglected. Our Cornell entrance papers make it evident every year that many of the candidates have never been trained to look at an object directly before their eyes. For instance, one candidate this June misspelled the name of the great Roman, Ceaser, although he had only to look at the word in the paper to get its correct form. Another twisted the Priscilla of the paper into Pracilla.

The advantages of basing school writing upon school reading are numerous. The first is that it gives the scholar an oppor-

tunity of acquiring a vocabulary, which is at once the most valuable outfit and the one hardest to acquire. The final test of one's skill in writing is the correct use of words. We do not learn our words and phrases out of the dictionary but by imitating what we hear and read. How meager and haphazard the average undergraduate's stock of expression can be at times, every college professor knows to his sorrow. Last winter one of our Cornell publications startled its readers with the announcement that the class of '93 had achieved an envious reputation. A junior wrote that Dr Johnson went to London to curry friends there. A senior prefaced the abstract of his graduation thesis with the complacent asseveration that this paper was by a promising young chemist. Being asked what he meant by such self-flattery, he expressed great surprise and protested that he meant only to speak of himself as a young student of chemistry who had promised to do as well as he knew how.

The second advantage is that it gives every scholar material enough for writing. Even the dullest can remember something of what he has read, and one exceptionally bright can be encouraged to attempt originality of treatment. The method is elastic enough to fit all minds.

The third advantage is that it quickens and expands the soul. Our school curriculums ignore the soul altogether too much. They provide instruction in mathematics, in the languages, in history and geography. These are all necessary studies. But they are also purely intellectual work. They sharpen the mind but they do not feed the spirit. They deal so exclusively with problems that the scholar must think at times that life offers nothing but problems. Is it not indispensable, then, to lighten this burden by giving up some school time to relaxation, to amusement? I do not scruple to use this word amusement, for it expresses what is in my mind. I wish to see the boys and girls of this state amused in the right way, made to feel that for a few hours every week they may throw aside declensions and conjugations, dates and equations, and enjoy themselves over a bright story or a beautiful poem. True, the reading is not mere pastime, not something to be forgotten next day, like a ball game. They are to give heed to what they read, to form definite impressions and remember them. But running through all the work there is to be the consciousness of pleasure.



Do not think that I am sketching for you a purely imaginary, an ideal English course. What I propose to you has been already done. In one of our very best preparatory schools, namely, the Cascadilla, nine tenths of the English instruction during the past two years has been given in the manner indicated. The boys have read all the books set for the university entrance examination and have written up the contents, section by section. The teacher, Prof. Lee, now a member of our faculty, assures me that some of the boys acquired such a relish for reading that they bought additional works of Scott, Dickens and other authors, and read them for their private pleasure. This fact is the more significant when coupled with the other fact that most of these boys were preparing for our technical courses, in which English is not required after admission. Certainly the entrance papers written by Cascadilla candidates demonstrate that the writers know what to say and how to say it.

There are some forms of writing, however, which require independent treatment. I mean chiefly letter writing and the preparation of reports. In letter writing the pupil must learn how to begin and end a letter, and how to address it. These are part of the technic of daily life, and the sooner one learns them the better. I admit that practice letters will always be stiff in form and conventional in tone; the writer will always feel under some restraint in making up a letter ostensibly to a relative or friend, but in reality for the teacher's criticism. Nevertheless the practice itself I look upon as indispensable for the scholar of average ability. If it accomplishes nothing more, it will teach him to avoid the many gaucheries that often disfigure private correspondence.

Several of the high schools of this state have already introduced a system of preparing reports which I hope will be made generally obligatory. For particulars I refer you to Miss Spaulding's paper read at the Binghamton conference last winter. (See *School review* for May, p. 300.) It seems to me an admirable training of the eye and the judgment to require the scholar to visit a shop, or a factory, or a public-building, and report in writing what he has seen there. In country schools, landscape will naturally take the place of city buildings. Only at one point would I dissent from Miss Spaulding, if I understand her aright.



Her phrase is: "Narrative work is confined chiefly to reproduction of interesting legends." If by legend is meant such a story as Hiawatha, or Rip Van Winkle, nothing could be better. But if the word is intended to suggest some local story, then I have my doubts. Very few American localities have such stories worth re-telling. It may be well to practice the narrative powers of the pupil by getting him to tell something that has happened to himself, for instance, a journey, or to sum up an event of public importance that has been fully reported in the newspapers. But ideal narration, if I may use such an expression, is best learned by imitating the great masters in that line, by reproducing their stories. The mere fact that they have told a story gives it a superiority over other stories.

And in general I hold that the writing of letters and reports should not exceed one fifth of the time; four fifths, perhaps a still larger share of the time allotted to English writing, should be occupied in restating the contents of books read.

Lastly, can not some of the reading be *viva voce*, independently of any training in elocution proper and solely with a view to better understanding the text? It is time that eye, ear and voice should be trained to cooperate. Some faults in grammar, some even in expression, are due to wrong pronunciation, and vice versa. Proper names and many common words are misunderstood because they are never spoken but only glanced over by the eye. An apt illustration occurs in one of our recent entrance papers. The writer gives the name of David Copperfield's school friend as Twaddle. This is evidence of course that he had never read the book aloud. Doubtless the noun twaddle was in his ear, but without any definite meaning, and his careless eye transferred it to the pages as he crammed for examination.

We naturally ask what place formal instruction in rhetoric has in such an English course? In my judgment, rhetoric like grammar, should be made subordinate and incidental to the reading. All school text-books of rhetoric known to me are more or less unsatisfactory. But without attempting a discussion of their merits and demerits, for which I have in this place no time, let me state briefly in passing that almost any book of rhetoric will do its work if properly used, and that the best will be a failure if

improperly used. In the hands of a competent teacher every rhetoric can be made at least to explain all the topics, definitions and rules that any scholar need learn and to give the method of illustrating them with specimens from the books used in reading, and also to train the scholar in making analyses of plots, stories, and characters, and to recognize the varieties of argument, narration and description.

Such analyses will serve as a guide in reading, to teach the pupil how to take a book to pieces and put it together again. The chief good of rhetorical instruction lies, in my opinion, just here. For, if the rules of rhetoric are, as I believe they are, mere inferences from the practice of good writers, the best use we can put them to is to test the rules by the writers and the writers by the rules. This testing will do more to quicken observation and stimulate imitation than any possible amount of composition upon general subjects set merely to evoke the observance of general rules. For instance, one of the dicta in historic writing is that the writer should group his persons and narrative around the shifting centers of interest. It would be easy to require the scholar to show this from the method of Macaulay in his essays on Clive and Warren Hastings. I have not the time to develop this point, but must content myself with suggesting it; only let me urge upon you the question, whether rhetoric pursued in this way as a guide to reading, will not prove at once a most profitable and interesting study. To tell the scholar that he must do thus and so is usually barren dogmatism; to demonstrate to him that great writers have done thus and so, is to make writing a reality. And it is precisely this reality that we need most in English instruction.

In any event, and whatever text-book of rhetoric be used, let it be used throughout the entire course. Let its contents be repeated and tested until they become as familiar as the multiplication table. If there is any one feature of the present New York system that puzzles and disheartens me more than another, it is the practice of disposing of rhetoric in a single school term of 12 weeks, three or five recitations a week without written exercises. No surer way could be devised of defeating the object. Far better to throw the rhetoric overboard and save for other things the time thus wasted. No one has ever learned to write

in that way. A term of rhetoric recitations is the worst conceivable cram. Writing is an art; like other arts, it is acquired only through incessant practice and incessant correction for many years. Let me illustrate the question from a kindred art. You teach free-hand drawing in your schools. This is a wise and useful provision. Would you teach it by a term's recitations on a text-book of perspective?

What books shall be read in the new English course? Were this question to be treated as purely theoretical, I should be puzzled for an answer, but there is one practical consideration that decides it for us. Namely, the entrance requirements for the New England college. These requirements are observed by all the colleges of New England (Yale only has diverged slightly from the plan), and by many colleges in the middle and western states, Cornell among the number. This plan, as you know, presupposes the reading of nine or 10 books. The authors thus set are both English and American, the works are both in prose and poetry. The range of subjects is as wide and diversified as the number of books will admit. The program is not perfect; it may be improved in time, and doubtless will be. Nevertheless it is a program and the only one observed by all the leading colleges in this section of country. There is not a book in the list which is not worth careful reading. In view of the fact, then, that although you are training pupils for life in general, you are also training many for college life in particular, will it not be wise to adopt the New England program as it stands and make it thoroughly your own? Here are 10 books. They vary slightly from year to year, but the changes are so slight and so carefully forecast that your schools will have no difficulty in keeping pace with them. The list is announced several years ahead. I propose that it be ascertained in September, 1893, what books will be set in September, 1895, and make those books the reading required in the last two years of your three years course. Reserve Shakspeare and other difficult reading for your last year. For the reading of your first year, select books outside the program, easy reading, and preferably American authors. I see no reason why your high-school pupils should not in the last two years of their course read 10 books, write up the contents section by section, understand and remember the action and characters, and answer

correctly and fully in entrance examination to college any reasonable questions that may be put to them.

I assume that the books will be explained by the teacher in class and made the substance of at least one written exercise a week. The regents should, I think, mark out the reading every two years and require each school to adhere to the curriculum term by term. This is the only sure way to prevent confusion and maintain uniformity. Your pupils would, on this plan, lose nothing if transferred from one school to another.

In the matter of examinations, I would suggest this. Assuming three terms in the school year, let there be an examination at the end of the first and second terms in each year upon the term's work. The examination at the end of each year to be upon the whole year. The term examination to be at least two hours in length, the yearly examination to be at least three hours. This time element is all important. Writing as writing can be judged only in quantity. As we have no right to demand that boys and girls shall be rapid writers, we must give them time enough for writing a fair sample of say 500 words. In substance the examination should be for the most part a test of their ability to say something sensible upon the books read, and to use correctly words, the ordinary signs of punctuation and the paragraph. But it would be well to give them a question or two in grammar and call upon them to analyze rhetorically a passage of some length taken from one of the books read. Such an examination would be searching, I admit, but it need not be what is technically called difficult. By a difficult examination I understand one in which the questions are really puzzling in themselves, e. g., knotty constructions in Latin or Greek, or involved algebraic equations. A searching examination is one that makes sure that the candidate has gone over the ground carefully. Is there any reason why your English examinations should not be searching? Can you certify to the ability of a pupil upon any other condition than that of a thorough test?

Let me recapitulate. I assume a three years course, three exercises weekly.

1 Grammar. A very concise text-book in constant use throughout the course, both in reading and writing. All mistakes in grammar, oral or written, corrected instantly.

2 Rhetoric. A text-book of quite moderate size used throughout the course, chiefly as a guide in reading, to call attention to the distinction between style and invention, to the different kinds of composition, to figurative language and the like. Also to be used as a quasi-standard by which to correct the pupils' composition, but emphatically not as a manual of composition.

3 A moderate amount of practice in letter writing and in preparation of reports.

4 Reading in the first year a few easy texts chiefly from American authors, outside the New England program.

5 Reading the New England program thoroughly in the second and third years, reserving the more difficult authors for the third year.

6 Writing up each book section by section, noting the author's diction and general treatment.

7 Some reading aloud in class, as a corrective of faulty pronunciation and misunderstanding of words.

8 Searching examinations term by term and year by year.

Such is the plan which I submit to your consideration. It is not an easy plan to carry out, but is, I think, feasible, and if carried out will give your pupils the training they need, whether in preparation for college or not. The plan offers these advantages.

1 It will inculcate a taste for good reading and counteract the vulgarity which is our besetting vice.

2 It will be a relaxation from the grind of mathematics and languages, ancient or modern, as mere grammar.

3 It will promote both the ideal and the practical: the ideal, by laying the foundation of culture — culture in distinction from mere knowledge; the practical, by continually testing the pupil's powers of observation and expression.

It is not the mission of our high schools to graduate young authors. That is a feat beyond the power of school and even of college. But it is the duty of our schools to lay the foundation of culture, and literary culture can be acquired only through study of literary models. I can not but believe that the path to sensible, correct, refined writing, whether it ever becomes authorship or not, lies through the reading of books that open the heart to the powers of language and imagination.

This is not an ideal plan, but one that may be carried out under existing conditions. To be frank, I do not believe in a three years high school. I regard four years as the minimum. The best high school, indeed, would be one of six years. But I am not discussing that phase of the school question at present. I merely accept the fact as a fact that for the present the New York high school is usually one of three years. The fact may, and I hope will, cease to be a fact. In the meantime I am trying to make the best of it.

Lastly let me assure you that this English discipline is the one above all others which demands firmness. By firmness I mean what Carlyle might call the everlasting yes; what Kant might call the categorical imperative. We are to demand good writing and take no denial, listen to no evasion.

**Prof. C. H. Thurber** — Following Sup't Michael's allegory, the discussion on this question was begun by Adam, you are now listening to Eve, and I suppose presently the serpent will turn on us. But like many things that sound well this allegory is not so. We heard yesterday that education is one thing, not a variety of things; so the English question is one question. Horizontal stratification has led us into combats and errors. It has given an opportunity for the pot to call the kettle by dark epithets and for reciprocity in the same line, and I am not sure it has not been a means of creating a vague impression that there are several different kinds of English, elementary, secondary and still other kinds. From the specimens we have heard there is some ground for believing this, and also that none of these kinds of English has any direct connection with English "as she is wrote and spoke" by the common people. There is danger that we shall study and learn English somewhat as we study good manners from a book of decorum; we get the good manners that we put on with our Sunday coat and the English we would pick up with the pen and scented paper. It may be true that emphasizing English as a distinct branch of study in the secondary school will tend to deepen this impression rather than remove it. We should not study English as a thing apart, but as our whole existence. It must be the means and instrument of all teaching. Whenever a pupil has any thoughts to express in arithmetic, geography, science, or history, then and there is the



time for him to practise his art so far as he has learned it, to use all he knows of English. It must be interwoven as part of the daily school work. I am doubtful of the expediency of adding more English as a distinct study to the curriculum. The matter of form comes not easily to any of us, at least to very few. How to write English well is a problem that takes a long time to solve, and I believe it is well to employ all the aids we can. On this ground, if for no other, I have always favored a school paper. I am aware that the highest form of journalistic achievement is not usually represented in such a paper, but as soon as a boy has to write something that he is to see in print he has an entirely different conception of what writing means. I fancy most of us have had that experience when for the first or second times we have seen our productions in print. I have myself spent a week of leisure time on a young aspirant for literary immortality, and I played on his aspirations sufficiently to induce him to rewrite his literary gem not less than six times. He did it with great patience, and I think learned something from it.

In the matter of punctuation, paragraphing and spelling, the typewriter is an important aid. Things come out with startling distinctness when printed by the typewriter, and I wish in all our secondary schools we might have them for the pupils' use. Bad spelling can then no longer masquerade under fashionable handwriting.

We heard here yesterday of the movement in Germany to make German the foundation of the national educational system; the same idea is gaining ground in France and this discussion this afternoon shows that we are influenced by it also. But in comparison with the German and with the Frenchman we are at an immense disadvantage. For a German to learn German and for a Frenchman to learn French is a patriotic duty. National feeling is back of it. There are societies for the protection of the language against corruption from foreign influence; but we have little more to offer than the hope of passing the college entrance examination in English. This is a worthy end, but the student needs something more. He needs to feel that ability to use the native tongue correctly and elegantly is in itself a noble attainment worthy of his ambition. Must we admit that we are a plain prosaic people given over to material things and hampered by



see by an examination of the work itself; just as we can locate the particular spot aimed at by a number of marksmen, by noting the location of their shots upon the target. It is evident from a consideration of the attempts that have been made to arrange satisfactory courses of English in the schools, that the point really aimed at more or less consciously and intelligently is nothing else than the development of thought, and the expression of it through the medium of the English language, understanding by the word "thought" all the acquisitions of the mind.

Now this definition covers a great deal. It covers some things that have been overlooked too often, as well as some others that have been thrust forward too much—the consequent disturbance of the equilibrium of the subject being the cause of more of our poor teaching in English than any other one thing. There has never been any neglect of expression or style, or whatever you choose to call the instrumental part of English. Indeed, we have cultivated this aspect of the subject with commendable zeal. We have studied and taught etymology and grammar and rhetoric and "language." But the thing that we worked so hard over was dead to begin with, and it is no wonder our efforts to galvanize it into life were unavailing.

A very long step was taken in the direction of a solution of the English problem when somebody discovered, a few years ago, what everybody now claims that he always knew, that our boys and girls can never be taught to write compositions until they have something in their heads to write about; and the various devices that followed upon this discovery, for furnishing materials suitable for composition work, if not so successful as their inventors had hoped they would be, were all helpful as far as they went. But the mere supplying of an environment fitted to stimulate primary mental acquisitions falls very far short of the full requirements of the case. It is much to be regretted that the philosopher who discovered the necessity of having something to say in order to say something did not push his investigations a single step farther and show us the necessity of teaching our pupils to organize their primary concepts into reasoned discourse; for the stunted development of the thought side of our English teaching is still beyond peradventure its most vulnerable point.

Moreover, it is certain to prove an insuperable obstacle to any great improvement in that work, just as long as it is allowed to continue. Our English teachers will never be able to secure anything but the most uneven and disappointing results until they realize the paramount necessity of a thorough training for their pupils as well as — shall I say it? — for themselves in the laws of discursive thought. Not that there is anything new in this position, unless, indeed, with the late Prof. Freeman, you make modern history begin with the first Olympiad: it is as old as Plato and Aristotle, it has been set forth by a long line of philosophers after them, and it has always been insisted upon by the most successful teachers of English. But, though often repeated, it has been too little heeded: it demands the strongest possible emphasis when the University of the State of New York is considering the problem of reorganizing and systemizing the English work in the schools of this imperial state. By "English" we mean nothing less than the development of thought and the expression of it through the medium of the English language.

With this understanding of the word, let us consider what principles, as fundamental, should govern the organization of every general course in English in our secondary schools. And here let me disclaim any desire to map out a cast-iron plan, to the minute details of which I would have every secondary school in the state attempt to conform its methods of teaching. Nothing could be farther from my wish, had I the power to accomplish such a result. Individuality is a quality to be cultivated in schools and in pupils, rather than to be repressed. But there are certain principles the fundamental character of which is shown alike by philosophy and by experience, and the recognition of which in the organization of our courses in English is imperatively demanded, if the instruction in that subject is to be brought to the degree of efficiency which the importance of the subject requires, and which has already been attained in other subjects to which the attention of educational specialists has been directed during the last few years.

The first of these fundamental principles which I will mention is that of the three-fold nature of English. I believe it was the French philosopher Diderot who first called attention to the

three ways in which, obviously enough, any subject of investigation may be treated according as it is viewed with reference to its past development, its present status, or its future progress, and which he called, respectively, the history, the science, and the art of the thing. Certainly the development of thought and the expression of it through the medium of the English language is a subject that may be regarded with reference to its past development, its present status and its future progress. It is the failure of so many of our teachers in the past to recognize in English a history, a science, and an art, to which, after the neglect of dialectics already referred to, the generally unsatisfactory condition of our English teaching is due.

We have had, to be sure, something that we called "literature" and which was a species of history. 25 years ago the common form of this study was a text-book containing biographies of the British writers from Mandeville to Scott, great care having been taken that nobody who had ever written a book should be omitted. There were also to be had collections of extracts from these authors, arranged chronologically; but these were comparatively rare. With such appliances "English literature" was neither a popular nor a fruitful study. The tediousness of the subject, however, was supposed to be counterbalanced by a profundity that made it a proper discipline for college and for the senior class of the "female seminary." After a while some victim less submissive than his fellows rebelled against the process of committing to memory so many facts in the lives of so many authors and boldly demanded to be shown some of the books they had written. The spell having been thus broken, a great cry went up all over the land against the biographies; and for the last 10 years it has been as much as a teacher's reputation was worth to say anything in favor of the history of literature. At first we had only the compendiums of extracts to take the place of the biographies; but latterly we have been furnished with numerous inexpensive editions of complete works.

Now we are all agreed that the gain resulting from this revolution,—a gain in enthusiasm as well as in positive knowledge—is very great. Where is the teacher rash enough to propose going back to the biographies? But have we not lost something

important too? In throwing over the biographies with their chronological sequence, and in devoting our attention so exclusively to individual masterpieces, are we not overlooking that historical perspective without which any body of knowledge, however accurate in itself, assumes such distorted relations to other groups of facts that its value is greatly impaired thereby? Undoubtedly we used to give too large a proportion of our time to biography; but the enthusiasm of our reformers has carried them too far, as it has often carried other reformers before them. I am profoundly impressed with the value of historical perspective, as a corrective and assimilative force, in any line of study. Least of all can we do without such perspective in a subject the history of which is so rich and progressive as that of English literature.

I would, then, build up a strong line of literary history, first, by restoring to an honored, though restricted, place in our courses in English, sketches of the lives of the great writers, the writers themselves to be selected with reference to their formative influence upon the literature, and arranged in convenient groups according to their relative importance; and the material for the sketches to be chosen with direct reference to its bearing upon our literary development.

Combined with this work I would have a certain amount of literary criticism, brief statements of accepted opinions concerning the merits of the most important works in our literature. I am aware that my belief in the efficacy of this feature of my proposed course is just now regarded as particularly heretical. But I think that my orthodox brethren make a great mistake when they undertake to rule out of their English courses all formed opinion upon the literature. In the first place, the thing can never be done; and in the second place, it is as undesirable as it is impracticable. The very atmosphere of literature is pervaded by judgment upon men and books. What is literary criticism, if it is not itself a part of literature? The reformers may, indeed, studiously avoid the formal work of the professional critics, as if it were virus and would poison their taste; but how shall they hope to escape the contamination of that appreciation of other great souls which illumines and

warms the pages of our poets? You may burn Macaulay in the kitchen range and consign Matthew Arnold to the oblivion of the garret, but you can't read Tennyson and Holmes without finding out that it was

Dan Chaucer, the first warbler, whose sweet breath  
With his melodious bursts did fill  
The spacious times of great Elizabeth  
With songs that echo still;

and that

Our poet, who has taught the western breeze  
To waft his songs before him o'er the seas,  
Will find them wheresoe'er his wanderings reach,  
Borne on the spreading tide of English speech  
Twin with the rhythmic waves that kiss the farthest beach.

Moreover, English literature is not the only subject that has valid claims upon our attention in a bustling age; and when it comes to the question of accepting the opinions of specialists in their own department or of going without any opinion at all upon matters concerning which it is a shame to be ignorant, we are wise in our day and generation if we avail ourselves of even so despised a thing as "other people's opinions about books."

But biographical sketches and literary criticism are not the only, nor the principal means by which I would build up a strong course in the history of literature. I would lay under contribution all the varied apparatus of general views, transverse sections, cross references, chronological charts, and similar devices well known to the skilful teacher of general history and equally available for the history of literature; and I would illustrate and establish the whole by the study of the text of as many masterpieces as possible. Here is an opportunity for the application of a genuine laboratory method to the teaching of history, with promise of brilliant results. Fortunately, this feature of the work is in no immediate danger of being neglected.

Parallel with the work in the history of literature as I have here outlined it, should run a course of lessons in the science of English composition. Now I am aware of the bad repute into which some of the subjects in this line of English work have lately fallen among teachers. There are teachers who for reasons best known to themselves affect to regard the matter of punctuation as in

no way worthy of serious attention. They would not for the world speak disrespectfully of the equator, an object which it is safe to say very few of them ever saw; but they do not hesitate to turn a cold shoulder upon their old friend the period; and if, on the one hand, they exhibit a marked partiality for capital letters, it is very evident, on the other, that they consider the second half of a pair of quotation marks as deserving of nothing but silent contempt. Our system of orthography has been openly attacked by a group of unsympathetic spelling-reformers. Grammar, too, just at present is resting under a heavy cloud. So severe have been the indictments against this particular form of mental exercise, and so convincing the arguments for its complete suppression, that it is no wonder the thing has so nearly disappeared from our schools. English grammar I mean, for, of course, Latin or Greek, French or German grammar is a very different thing and stands on a different footing; our pupils study Greek and Latin grammar that they may write these languages correctly without attempting to speak them, and French and German grammar that they may speak these languages correctly without attempting to write them; while without doubt they neglect English grammar that they may both write and speak that language correctly. And when it comes to rhetoric, we find that that antiquated subject, never of any practical value, is no longer studied except by sophomores in Ohio colleges. There isn't much left in the technic of composition after you have taken out punctuation, and spelling, and grammar, and rhetoric. Yes, there is one thing left. Logic has rarely been included in the curriculum of our secondary schools and that is still left out.

What is logic? The science of thinking. We have defined the word English, as used in this discussion, to include the production of thought as well as the expression of it through the medium of the English language. How, then, does it happen that we have so rarely taught logic as a part of English? Simply because we have rarely taught English as we have now defined it. We have taught punctuation, and spelling, and grammar, and rhetoric; and when the results were disappointing we ignored punctuation, cursed spelling, slandered grammar, and ridiculed rhetoric; but it never occurred to us to put in logic.



Now, leaving out of account for the present the interesting and highly important questions of the proper proportions and sequence of these subjects in an ideal course in English, I wish in this connection merely to insist upon the necessity of having, parallel with the work in the history of literature, as I have outlined it, a strong course in the technic of English composition, comprising, as first in importance, logic, or dialectics, if you prefer the scholastic name, the science of thinking; and as second in importance to dialectics, punctuation, spelling, grammar and rhetoric, the sciences of the exact and effective expression of thought; while here, as in the course in the history of literature, principles should be illustrated and established by the study of the text of the literary masterpieces.

Parallel with these courses in the history of literature and the theory of composition I would arrange a third course in the practice of English composition. If there is anything upon which the teaching fraternity may safely congratulate themselves, it is the advance that has been made of late years in an appreciation of the importance of practice in composition as an integral part of any well balanced course in English. We were so nauseated a few years ago by the claims of certain teachers to the discovery of the principle of "learning to do by doing," accompanied as these claims were by the sickening adulation of subordinates and sycophants, that we were for a time in some danger of overlooking the importance of the principle itself. The claim of originality was, of course, preposterous. Teachers of English, at least, do not need to be told that the principle is certainly as old as the period when Dotheboys hall was a flourishing institution for the training of impecunious youth of the British nation.

"This is the first class in spelling and philosophy, Nickleby," said Squeers, beckoning Nicholas to stand beside him. "Now, then, where's the first boy?"

"Please, sir, he's cleaning the back parlor windows," said the temporary head of the philosophical class.

"So he is, to be sure," rejoined Squeers. "We go upon the practical mode of teaching, Nickleby, the regular education system. C-l-e-a-n, clean; verb active, to make bright, to scour. W-i-n, win, d-e-r, der, winder; a casement. When the boy



knows this out of the book he goes and does it. Where's the second boy?"

"Please, sir, he's weeding the garden," replied a small voice.

"To be sure," said Squeers, by no means disconcerted, "so he is. B-o-t, bot, t-i-n, tin, bottin, n-e-y, ney, bottinney; noun substantive, a knowledge of plants. When he has learned that bottinney means a knowledge of plants, he goes and knows 'em. That's our system, Nickleby."

To what dizzy heights of success Squeers might have attained if he had not been a spelling reformer, it is impossible to say. As it was, his school went down; and Quincy and Normal park claim all the credit for discovering the principle long since applied with such eminently practical results in the schools of Yorkshire. But seriously, if the principle of "learning to do by doing" is not new, it certainly is true; and it is of immense importance in the teaching of English. Fortunately, on this line the battle has already been fought out, and victory is overwhelmingly on the side of practice, and plenty of it, in composition.

These, then are the three parallel lines of work in which, as recognizing the three-fold nature of the subject, I would have the English work of our secondary schools organized.

The second fundamental principle upon the recognition of which I would insist is that of the interdependence of these three lines of work. Rigid analysis is requisite to an exact conception of any complex whole. Our resolution of the complex notion English into its component parts has contributed materially to the accuracy of our conception of that subject. We have seen that a course in English, to be symmetrical, must be organized in the three lines of history, theory and practice. But it by no means follows that the work in each of these three lines should be carried on independently of that in the others. On the contrary, so vital is the relationship between the history, the theory and the practice of English, that while each of these phases of the subject is logically distinct from the others, and each yields its own peculiar discipline, the best results are obtained only when work in each line is prosecuted with reference to progress

already made in the others. The work in the history of literature, for example, severely condemned as it is, will be found, in the hands of a skilful teacher, to contribute powerfully toward the acquisition by pupils, not only of better theoretical knowledge of the principles of composition, but especially of greater efficiency in the art of writing. This it will do by furnishing them with additional thought materials, by familiarizing them with literary models, and above all, by opening their blind eyes to the vision of our literature as a mighty organism, instinct with the best and highest thought of the past, palpitating with the intense and multiform mental and spiritual activity of a present in which we ourselves live and move and have our being, absorbing into its mysterious life some part of our own in the shape of a wise thought, a sincere feeling, another phase of that infinitely complex thing we call life, and growing into an eternity of glory in the future, for thought is a thing which, once born, lives forever, with the soul that conceived it.

The third fundamental principle upon the recognition of which I would insist is that of logical perspective. I mean by this the principle according to which the various topics of a subject are taken up in the order of their importance. The great advantages to be gained from the application of this principle in education are the greater ease with which the successive difficulties of a subject may be mastered, and the truer proportions, at any given moment, of the knowledge obtained up to that time. Wherever the pupil discontinues his work, the knowledge he has already gained forms a symmetrical acquisition, complete as far as it goes, and deep in proportion to the time he has devoted to the subject. With the application of the principle of logical perspective to our course in English, any tendency toward the over-crowding of the first part of the course with too much material immediately disappears. While we keep our work in the three lines of history, theory and practice all going on together, we take up, during the first half-year, only the 12 or 14 writers of greatest importance, study only the simplest forms of thought and the simplest ways of expressing them, and practice only the most elementary kinds of composition. During the next year the ground is all gone over again; but it is gone over in such a way that, while the past term's work is reviewed, a surprising quantity of new material is

both accumulated and assimilated. This is the most scientific, as it is the most natural plan of procedure; albeit it must be admitted that it requires a high grade of organizing and teaching ability to adapt to the requirements of school routine the plan which every man instinctively follows in rounding out the larger education of active life.

Upon these three fundamental principles of analysis, synthesis and perspective would I build my courses in English in secondary schools. You will observe that the system I have outlined is neither so complicated that it is unwieldy nor so elaborate that it requires more than a just proportion of time for English. It is the system in operation in the very large high school which I have the honor to represent on this occasion, a school comprising 24 classes in eight distinct grades, and the wheels of the machinery move noiselessly there. All the time it requires for its full success is three recitations per week through the school course, a proportion which I was glad to observe the regents have adopted as the minimum for all schools of the University. When it comes to the details of administering courses of English in particular schools, I leave that matter where it belongs — with the teachers of those schools. Principles are general; methods are special. Methods that succeed in one school fail in another equally as good. It is the teacher himself who, in daily, personal contact with his pupils, does more than all else to fashion their minds and shape their destinies.

I can not close this paper, already too long, without some expression of my own appreciation of the great work which the regents of the University are doing for the schools of this state in the matter of English. Their recent action in providing for the speedy reorganization of this work, and for the supervision of it by an educational expert, and in opening the way for the requirement of a minimum of excellence in the English of examination papers in all subjects in which certificates are granted, has placed the work upon a new plane and a far higher one than it has ever occupied in any state in the union. New York is fortunate above any of her sister commonwealths in possessing a department of education unique in its powers, and in its influence over the destiny of the state. If the regents provide wisely and generously for the completion of the work they have so auspi-

ciously begun, their effort will stand in the history of the state as greater, more far-reaching in its influence alike upon the material prosperity and upon the spiritual well-being of the people, than any event since the first establishment of public schools on the western continent by the Dutch settlers of New Netherlands.

I said early in my paper that I would skip reference to my own work in the Brooklyn boys' school, but after what Mr Mabie so eloquently said about the cultivation of imagination as a part of our legitimate work I can not refrain from reading a very short extract which is contained in the school paper. We have in our school a paper. I have nothing to do with the paper, but I picked up the last number of it and found that it had three compositions and a prize poem that I was particularly interested in. The single stanza which I wish to read from the poem of five stanzas entitled "An ode to the river," is as follows :

Far up upon the mountain's wooded slope,  
Where, in the summer shadelight, stillness dwells,  
Save when some wild bird tells its joy and hope  
In fluttering song, which from its wild heart swells,—  
A spring came forth, and poured its coolness o'er  
The feet of ferns, and mosses, and wild things,  
Which gladly gathered on that little shore  
To taste the wind stored up alone in shaded springs.

From a much longer poem I wish to read a description of nightfall.

In western skies a thunder-headed cloud  
Moved sullenly; throughout the lifeless air,  
Chill vapors crept as though a midnight fog  
Had melted into frigid nothing there.  
High overhead a mateless sea-bird cried  
And winged an hurried, wild, uneven flight.  
While over hills, where last the sunlight slept,  
There played a dimly-flashing, gruesome light.  
Uncaused by wind, across the waveless bay,  
A tremor swept,—a shudder of dismay  
That Night should traitor turn, and crush to doom,  
The flowers, the trusting children of the day;  
Should traitor turn, when eventide had bound  
Both Day and Night in one close peaceful spell—  
When Day had thrown to Night a sunset rose,  
And vanished, smiling, trusting all would well.

The single line "When day had thrown to night a sunset rose" is I think a creation. It gives the whole picture at once. I am not familiar with that figure; I have not the least idea that Blakesley, the boy who wrote the poem, found it in his reading. I may say that we are not all dreamers in the Brooklyn boy's school. The boys do not go about with their hair parted in the middle, wearing sun-flowers in their button-holes and with their eyes rolling up to the sky. We have a large city and a large school in Brooklyn and the boys are very lively, at least I found them so during my first year. After a term or two of training all the drudgery that we hear so much about is repaid to me by seeing those boys' eyes kindle as they read or have read to them some of the best thoughts that Mr Mabie and other speakers this afternoon have rendered. I have seen their eyes kindle and their faces glow. It is, I assure you a compensation for months of drudgery on compositions. We do not correct compositions either, we mark them and the boys do the writing.

The Chancellor read the following telegram just received from Yale as evidence of the widespread interest in the topic.

NEW HAVEN, Ct.

Chairman University Convocation, Senate Chamber, Albany, N. Y.

Best wishes for furtherance of English study in institutions of every grade.

ALBERT S. COOK

**Prin. Marcellus Oakey** — The prominence given to the study of English in our secondary schools must be decided on the merits of the subject itself and its adaptability to the special work which they are designed to perform, and not on the demand made by a few colleges suddenly awakened to the fact that they admit students improperly prepared in the art of expression and a few years afterwards graduate them not a whit better able to express themselves, except that they have by time and age enlarged their range and perhaps increased their vocabulary. The remedy for the evils of which the colleges complain is in their own hands. They may be left to take care of themselves. If this were the only incentive that the public high schools have for increasing the time allotted to the study of English, the principals of those

schools might give little heed to the further consideration of the subject. There is a point in college preparation beyond which it is impossible to take the boards of control. It is for the sake of English itself that it is of importance to the principals of the secondary schools. The throng in our counting rooms and offices and in the factories with which the valleys of this state teem, that throng that is busy with the affairs of life in every phase, the merchant princes who control our commerce, receive their mental training almost entirely from the high school; and from almost every department comes the cry for men of brains. The only answer that the high school or secondary school has given to that demand is the overcrowding of its curriculum and the accumulation of a smattering of elementary information derived from text-books that are in themselves so meager and elementary as to be of doubtful accuracy. The demand that the world makes to-day is not for men of abnormal intellect nor of vast stores of elementary education but for men who can exercise the faculties of their brain, who can grasp the conditions by which they are surrounded and rise superior to them, turning them to their own advantage and the advantage of the state. Men in whom resides not only the ability to lead, but to compel a following. What is done to supply the demand? I regard the requirement of further teaching of English in our preparatory schools as somewhat of an answer to that demand. It is the first step in the inauguration of a new movement which will remodel the curriculum of our high schools. How shall we train men of accurate thinking and reasoning power, men that shall be able clearly to understand their relations in life and to master those relations?

The study of English will do it if the course of study is rightly arranged. Dr Eliot in his now famous *Forum* article says that four operations are necessary for the development of the reasoning power of the mind; that of observing accurately, of recording correctly, of grouping and comparing justly and cogently and of expressing the conclusions. If these be the operations necessary to the development of clear reasoning, then our curriculum is wrong; instead of an overcrowding process, less time should be given to technical and accumulative work, and more to the development of thought contained in the subject-matter placed in their hands. Notice that three of the four functions



are directly in this line ; one only of observation and the other three of accurate thinking, accurate recording, accurate comparing and accurate expression of the results and conclusions thus formed. If this training is the essential process by which our pupils shall turn from their high-school course into men which society is demanding to-day, then the substance, not the manner in which the substance is treated, is the main difficulty in our schools. He is a hardy critic indeed who declares that those schools are only failures, but a wise observer who finds what is wrong and turns to account every new movement. Therefore the high schools may well approve the cry which demands more English work in our schools and that one fourth of every recitation shall be given to observation, and three fourths to the training of accurate thought and expression whether oral or written. By such means our schools will graduate men of power and intellect, and the time will come when the youth of this state asking for bread shall no longer be given a stone.

**Prin. W. P. Thomson** — Anyone who has followed even superficially, in the educational reviews and in the secular and religious press of the past year, the discussion of the English question can not fail to have noticed that there is something like a panic as to the condition of English in our schools and colleges. As teachers we are commanded to do something and do it immediately. I do not believe this question can be solved in a day or a year, or even in a school generation. The difficulty lies deeper than any remedy can reach at once; it is a national one reaching throughout the country and touching us as a people. Any qualified observer can hardly have failed to notice that the English of our country, even of the educated classes, is not thoroughly good. Our vocabulary is limited. A very small number of words do duty for the expression of all our ideas. We lack flexibility and discrimination in the use of words. The average educated English man or woman placed in a group of Americans of the same social condition is marked not simply by a correct enunciation and all that goes with that, but by the superiority of his English, the delicacy of his choice of words and a richer vocabulary.

The language of the people is the expression of their mental furniture just as the language of a man or woman is an expression of the mental furniture of that man or woman. The reason for



all this is not far to seek. The prevalence of materialistic, sordid views of life, of low practical ideals if I may use that combination, seems to me to account very largely for the condition of our English, not in schools alone, but among the people from whom the schools receive their pupils. The absence of the humanistic element in our education is very largely the cause of the present condition of our English, and the remedy I think lies in the enlargement of the humanistic element both in the elementary and in the secondary schools. The remedy lies first, with the teachers; they must have a better command of English. A search for a teacher who combines knowledge of the English language and literature with the other qualities of an efficient teacher will show that while good teachers of that subject may be had, the supply is small. The remedy then will come from the introduction of the humanistic element at every point in our school curriculum beginning with the teachers.

#### ENGLISH IN COLLEGES

Brother Azarias, *of the Catholic summer school*—Many beautiful and edifying things have been said by different members of the convocation which throw much light on this subject. During the discussion I was reminded strongly of an old school-master who lived in the 13th century. He was professor of rhetoric and was so distinguished that a chronicle of Beza takes occasion to make his merits known; his chief merit is that so well did he teach his pupils to compose that even those of mediocre talent were able to express themselves so that one would think their expression was native, that it came from genius. This should be every teacher's aim; to endeavor to have a pupil express himself so clearly and elegantly, to give utterance to the thought that is in him so roundly and well that there is no possibility of mistaking the meaning. Göthe says that he who knows all art says little, but he who knows art but half, speaks much. So the man who has most efficiency in expression attains that only by severe labor. I remember a letter that appeared in the memoirs, letters and life of the late Cardinal Newman, written by him in his 63rd or 64th year, with all the maturity of his power as a writer, and the practice of over 30 years, in which he says to a friend who consulted him on the art of composition that he wrote with great

know it because grammars do not agree in their statements of principles. A tracing of the historic development of the language is university work. This is being done and it will benefit every school.

The second opportunity is in respect to English literature, which is to bring it into a place where it is only beginning to stand. It is only a comparatively few years since literature of any sort became identified with life and it has not yet gained its place. The artist has been till very lately exempt from the rules which govern us in respect to conduct and courtesy, vital principles which must actuate us.

**Friday morning, July 7**

Secretary Dewey announced that Prof. E. L. S. Horsburgh, M. A., of Queens college, Oxford, had been appointed by Oxford university as a delegate to University convocation and was to have made an address this morning, but on landing had found that an important address for which he was engaged in Philadelphia had been set for the same day and hour, so that he was unable to be present as arranged.

**SHOULD PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS ADMIT ON LOWER REQUIREMENTS THAN COLLEGES?**

**PROF. CHARLES A. COLLIN, CORNELL UNIVERSITY**

This question can not be discussed intelligently until answer is first made to the more fundamental question, what qualifications should be required for admission to the profession? Independent of all arbitrary or conventional qualifications required by professional schools, by law, or by regulations authorized by law, the situation itself has established an age qualification much higher than is required for entrance to the colleges. The colleges deal with boys, the professional schools with men. The average age of entering the professional school is decidedly over 21.

Assume that such a man comes to the professional school and says he wants to study law or medicine; that he has not a college education, nor even such a general education as will enable him to pass an examination for entrance to college, what advice would you give him as to the course of education he should take, for the purpose of entering his profession as well equipped and as

promptly as possible? He has no more time or money to spend upon general education, for merely general purposes, and he neither desires, nor perhaps needs, any more general education than is essential to a fair and broad equipment for entrance upon the practice of his profession.

I am not so much concerned with the answer you will make to this young man, with the advice you will finally give him, as I am with the point of view from which you approach the question and with the methods upon which your inquiry shall be conducted. There is a certain narrow pedagogic bias as distinguished from the point of view of the true teacher, whereby the main object appears to be the building up of the school, even though it involves a sacrifice of the interests of each individual student, as though the student were made for the school rather than the school for the student. The first inquiry should be, what work should this young man do to accomplish the desired end, and then adapt your school to the work.

Three questions appear to be raised by those who have discussed courses of professional study: is the object of the course, to dignify and exalt the professional degree, to dignify the professional school, or to fit the young man for the business of life before him?

For the professional degree, I have a sublime contempt. It is a damage to a young man about to enter upon the practice of law to exhibit his degree of LL. B. If he hangs out his shingle with LL. B. at the end of his name, he drives off clients. If the question under discussion be asked with reference to the qualifications which shall be required for conferring the degree of LL. B., I most respectfully suggest that the question is approached from a fundamentally false point of view. If the position be taken that the learned degree of LL. B., if there be any such thing as a learned degree, should be conferred only upon a man who has a certain amount of general education, for the sake of dignifying the degree, I have nothing to say, for I have neither time nor patience for the discussion of humbug. I have no discussion or controversy with those who aim to build up a grand school upon a beautiful system, for the sake of its high reputation, rather than to supply the actual needs of actual students.

I have no wish or disposition in any way to depreciate the value of a broad general education as preparatory to any sphere of life,

professional or otherwise. I need not enlarge upon the great benefit of a college education. But, the man over 21 years old whom I have in mind, has not been able for lack of funds or time or for other reasons, good or bad, to acquire a college education or even to prepare fully for entrance to college. Shall we say to him, you can not begin the study of law or medicine, unless you can pass a scholastic examination upon the subjects required of boys for entrance to college? Assume that he had four or five years ago completed a fair common school education, but not equal to a college preparation, meantime he has not been pursuing his education in the schools, but has his brain therefore been dormant? Has he no more maturity of judgment than the boy of 16 or 18? By his experience of life, earning his living, knocking about among business men, sharpening his wits, cultivating his brain and acquiring maturity of judgment, has he not received a certain mental discipline which is not to be despised, and should he be treated with reference to his qualifications for taking up a professional course, on the same basis as a boy of 16 or 18 who is about to enter college? When he comes to me and asks the privilege of studying law with me, should I say to him, first take up more arithmetic, more algebra, more Latin, go to school with boys of 16 for a year or so more, in a boys' school, and then come to me and study law; is that the best way to prepare that man for an intelligent study of law? If so, then the answer to the question under discussion must be in the affirmative.

But if, by reason of his knowledge of life and of business, his maturity of intellect, he is already prepared intelligently to take up the study of law, and at the end of four years will be better equipped for his professional career by three years as law student and one year of practice, than by one year of general school education and three years as law student, then he should begin his law study at once. The ordinary law school in the state of New York should allow such a man to begin the study of law just as soon as he can begin it profitably without final loss.

As to the precise answer to the question under discussion, I am very little concerned. If any sensible, broad-minded man, who knows what life and the practice of law is, will discuss this question along the lines I have suggested, I will be satisfied with his conclusion. But if, on the other hand, the question is whether the degree of LL. B. should be refused a man who is thus pre-

pared to practise law, because he has not a little arithmetic, algebra and Latin, then I will have no controversy and shall probably disagree whatever the conclusion may be.

It may be desirable that there should occasionally be post-graduate law schools, confining their students to college graduates. Such a law school would be a magnificent one to teach in. It would be a beautiful place for the study of the pure science of jurisprudence. It will have certain advantages over the ordinary law school for students who can enter it, but there will necessarily be some disadvantages.

The tendency of the college student, is to acquire a certain conceit of superior education and culture and rely thereon, as against hard work and brains without the culture. The young lawyer who comes from a law school following a college career and begins the practice of law, has before him two years at least of severe education. He will find himself often beaten by young men of inferior scholastic training, but of superior brains and harder workers. The first jury trial of the college graduate is often his last. Over and over again I have seen the cultured young lawyer, in a case he ought to have won, so thoroughly defeated by an opponent of inferior culture, that he gives up the court work in disgust and retires to office practice for the rest of his life. In law schools I have seen splendid specimens of college graduates, surpassed in the rivalries of law school life, by young men of inferior general education, who desired a college course but were unable to get it and who, after knocking about in business for three or four years, have come to a law school hungry for learning and with a rugged, fresh intellectual vigor. Is it not well to correct, in the professional school, certain misapprehensions almost inevitable to the college graduate, by contact there with rough brains and rugged work, instead of exaggerating such misapprehensions by a course in a graduate law school. I am inclined to question, whether, on the whole, the college graduate will not acquire a better preparation for the business of practising law by attending a law school where he will meet some men who have never been to college.

It should be borne in mind, that the lawyer on being admitted to the bar has a great deal of time on his hands during the next two or three years for the completion both of his legal and his

general education. The law school should constantly suggest the pursuit of historical, political, philosophical and other similar lines of study. The law school should do something itself in those lines and should constantly suggest to the law student's mind the broad field that is open before him in the line of general education. It should awaken and cultivate the intellectual appetite which will impel to such courses of study after he enters his profession.

But in this state the question assumes a special aspect. For the last few years the court of appeals of this state has been intrusted with the determination of what general preliminary education should be required of the young man before he begins the study of law, as well as what legal education should be required before he is admitted to the bar. In spite of the general impression abroad in highly educated circles, reversing the old doctrine that the king can do no wrong, and adopting the new doctrine that no public officer can do anything right, I respectfully submit that the judges of the court of appeals are better judges than the regents of the University or this audience, for determining the practical question of what general education should be required before a young man can commence the study of law which will count toward admission to the bar. The court of appeals has lately raised the requirements of general education preliminary to law study. The court of appeals rules require an examination of the candidate for law study in certain specified subjects or in equivalent studies approved by the rules of the University. If I may suggest a criticism upon the regents, it would be that in adopting equivalents, they have adopted only substantially the same amount of general education without reference to subjects giving special preparation to law study. I think if the regents give the candidate for law study his absolute choice in the whole range of studies, they might well have said any 50 counts instead of any 30 counts as equivalents of the lesser number of counts in the specifically mentioned subjects.

But my closing suggestion is, that if young men can enter the legal profession with a certain amount of general education as fixed by the court of appeals, and the law school requires more, the practical result will be that young men will be kept out of



the law schools and will enter the profession by inferior methods of approach, and the law schools by raising their standard of entrance will be lowering the standard of the profession. The law schools exist for the benefit of the profession and the state. I differ with my associates in the faculty of the law school with which I am connected on this point, but I am very strongly convinced that the law schools should, in their entrance requirements of general education, keep in line with the requirements established by the court of appeals for the study of law anywhere; and that we will accomplish the most effective work in raising the standard of general education preliminary to law study by centering our efforts upon the court of appeals and the profession at large, in urging them to raise to the highest practical point the requirements contained in their rules as to general education preliminary to law study.

### Discussion

**Sec. Melvil Dewey**—The first modification was when the court of appeals raised the requirement for the law student by about one year of study. It does not so appear as you read the requirements. The old requirement includes preliminary studies; the new requirement omits them, taking for granted that no one can pass the higher studies who has not passed the lower studies. What the regents did was to require 30 counts as the equivalent of the 19 required by the court of appeals. The rules said "their substantial equivalents defined by the rules of the University." The regents went so far as to require 30 instead of 19, and we have been abused by people who said that 30 was not a substantial equivalent of 19. But the law passed the other day near the close of the legislative session, qualifying the medical laws, has made a modification that many of the principals do not know. It says that medical students must have either graduated from a registered college or satisfactorily completed not less than a three years academic course in a registered academy or high school or had a preliminary education considered and accepted by the regents as fully equivalent. The legislature left in the old provision, "Or had passed regents examinations in arithmetic, elementary English, geography, spelling, United States history, English composition and physics." This inten-



tionally puts the provisional equivalent after the high school course and not after the 16 counts; therefore, the regents can not accept any equivalent for the 16 counts except a full 50 count course. This is fixed now by statute and hereafter the students in your academies and high schools must stay long enough to complete the minimum course of 50 counts or they can not be admitted to a medical school as candidates for a degree. Very low as you see, but a man must take exactly those 16; if he offers equivalents he must offer a high school course. May I suggest this, that we ought to keep clear in the discussion a thing that Professor Collin brought out? For admission to the bar the state fixes a certain minimum below which we do not allow any man to practise in the courts. I very seldom express an opinion on these questions, but I contend that the degree of LL. B. conveys an impression that a man not only is allowed by law to practise but that he has some special training in law and in general education that entitles him to a university degree. Over on the other side they ridicule the medical schools of this country. They say "A man here must study 14, 15, or 16 years to get his bachelor's degree, and after practising a number of years he aspires to the doctorate. But in the states you give a boy who has swept out the office for four or five months not only a bachelor's or master's degree but a doctor's." A boy that could not enter a high school in the state of New York is graduated with the university degree of doctor. And many people in the state of New York to-day defend this practice.

This question is put on the program that we may hear not from professional schools alone, but from university and college men as to whether it is a credit to the state of New York to continue giving a university doctorate to a man unable to enter a first-class high school.

**Prof. Daniel S. Martin** — I can not speak as a lawyer or as an instructor in a law or medical school, but in 1882, on the establishment of the requirements by the court of appeals, I became regents examiner of law students in the city of New York, holding the position till the office was transferred to Albany. We are not in danger, I think, of placing our requirements too high. Previous to 1882 the conditions of admission to professional schools, whether of law or medicine were scandalous. A man who could not get through freshman year at college could drop

out of his class, go to a law or medical school and come out a lawyer or a physician at the same time his classmates finished their four years general course and received degrees. The man who could not keep up with the rest, thus had three years advantage in time.

Then came the requirements of the court of appeals as the first step in the reform, and I wish very much that some of the gentlemen who are discussing this question from a somewhat theoretic standpoint, could have seen the kind of material that I had to deal with during those six years, the men with experience of life and practical knowledge who wanted to become lawyers. The men were boys; the practical experience was sweeping out offices; the knowledge of life was knocking about among business men; men who claimed to have been through high schools, but whose grammar was inexpressible; men who were better fitted in some cases to be grocery errand boys than to go into professional life. If anyone doubted the importance of these higher requirements he would have been convinced after dealing with that class of students. The old method went on till the legislature revised the law.

What is the object of our educational system in regard to professional life? Is it to make the way easy for everybody who wants to begin his professional course as soon as he can, or to raise the standard of professional life work in the interest of the community and the profession? I am not talking about building up schools; they exist for the profession and for the country. But shall we crowd the profession with men who are without culture, without broad views, without experience, capacity, time or mental development, or shall we, in behalf of the community, throw all the safeguards we can around those professional courses to which our business and sanitary interests are intrusted?

**Prof. Isaac Franklin Russell** — I have been compelled to be a professional student of the topic under discussion this morning, and have had the stimulus of pecuniary interest in studying it very carefully. "Ought professional schools to admit on a lower standard than that prescribed for admission to college?" I say yes; this is a practical question. There are 8000 lawyers in New York and Brooklyn. I understand that there are only

1500 lawyers in all Germany. The functions of these lawyers are quite different. A great many questions are decided by lawyers in this country that are not determined by lawyers and courts elsewhere. For instance, a man builds a wall on my land. I retain a lawyer and give him a big fee. He draws up a document that takes from a half hour to an hour and a half to read. He serves it on another lawyer. I wait 20 days for an answer. The time is extended. The other lawyer serves a document just as long on us. Then we wait the convenience of the court and jury to be tried. Other litigants want attention and the court is usually a year behind in its calendar. Perhaps it then goes to a referee; surveyors are appointed and maps are made and a big report furnished. Then the case is appealed to the general term and the court of appeals and they probably order a new trial. We settle these difficulties by law, but over in Germany they settle them differently and no money is made by the lawyer, stenographer or printer; the complainant goes right to the army officer who instead of saying that it will receive immediate attention and putting it in his pigeon-hole, calls for his hat, draws his sword, and says, "Let us see about this." He goes to the defendant and says, "Take down that wall." The defendant says, "I will take it down to-morrow." "Take it down now," says the military gentleman and down it comes.

I would like to see every man well educated. I indorse everything Brother Collin has said except with reference to degrees. I indorse what he said about ideal schools and am glad to see Harvard permitting no man without a B. A. to study law there. But what shall we do with men who have not B. A.? They are men not boys. I have had classes which averaged  $27\frac{1}{2}$  years of age. Last year I think my class averaged  $23\frac{1}{2}$ . Some students come at the age of 70. I have given instruction to a man who was in the Mexican war. They are self-suporting men, to whom academic life is not a part of the tom-foolery of an education. They are not like the boys that some pedagogue drives to school. They are possessed of furious ambition to achieve a high position in life and their money has been earned by their own manly labors, by sitting up nights perhaps as watchmen in the custom-house; they come and say "Let us sit here and if we can not understand your Latin, we can your

English." There is a great field for all who want to undertake this special work and I have no doubt there are a large number of students who would rather associate with Harvard B. A.'s than with any other class of men. I think also, that Johns Hopkins will find enough men in this country to bring B. A.'s there to study medicine. I believe these regents examinations are doing a great deal of good. I can well understand that a physician born in Europe and coming over here ought to be able to name all the towns through which the Erie canal runs. I think I should require that before I would allow him to saw my leg off. I came over from Europe with a graduate of Oxford university, a B. A., and he thought Chicago was on the coast and that South America was a small town in the state of New York. A representative from one of the universities in England said that while there were many professors in civil and canon law he thought they might do well to import a professor of geography in the U. S. for there was no place in America spelled properly, and Princeton college was supposed to be an independently governed state. This is a practical question and we are bound by the rules of the court of appeals. I would like, if possible, to see a larger preparation for the profession on the part of students. It simplifies the task of the professors. If a professor knows that everybody understands Latin he will not have to stop to spell *habeas corpus*, *ex post-facto* and other Latin phrases. I do not believe it is possible to have a three years course of study for the degree LL. B. in the state of New York under the present rules, because the best students will not attend their third year. A man who is a B. A. will apply for admission to the bar at the first opportunity that the law allows, which is a trifle within two years after his graduation, because the rules of the court of appeals allow him one year for his four years in college. Having then printed his card and put out his shingle, received the congratulations of his friends and some of their money, he starts in business. When October comes he won't go back to toe the mark and be criticized by professors. Only those who aspire to an unusual position in the profession will take a third year. If the court of appeals would raise the requirement to four years study then I would do what is possible for the establishment of the four years course,

**W. R. Spooner, New York**—I do not know that we Americans need to be alarmed or troubled by any ridicule of our methods or practices from the other side of the water. Sturdy, rigid and practical Americanism has been ridiculed by our neighbors on the other side from before the revolution, but we have shown what Americanism can accomplish. If we were to adopt the paternalism of a European government instead of our present method, the American people would object more strenuously than they do to the delays of the present time. What we need in our law practice is to discover a method of simplification of hastening cases on the calendar, the method which will compel judges to attend to their duty on the bench and not to take constant vacation, and which will prompt lawyers to be prepared with their cases, instead of relying on delays. Then we shall not need to call in the military officer.

If all were born with equal opportunities, then it might be well to establish a rule that all should pass the same rigid examination before being admitted to the regular courses of study for the profession. But when we look over the ranks of the leading men in our cities, we find the greater number started from humble beginnings without the opportunity of even that geographic education which the last speaker referred to as necessary and which our European brethren lack. Notwithstanding that, practical Americanism has carried them over all the difficulties of the road, has enabled them to pick out that which they needed to be informed on to bring to them success in their particular field of labor. We may very well reflect that it will not do to say to those who seek to enter our several professions that they must pass a certain standard of examination and that it must be set very high. We would then be placing a premium on wealth of parents rather than on wealth of character and ability in the subject itself. When you see the effect of college education on the majority of graduates, their self-conceit, their impracticability in everything they are called on to do, till their experience in life has knocked off this conceit and has smoothed the rough corners which the college course has given them, you may decide that this is not a good preparation for the profession. I am convinced that a man well grounded in the rudiments of an

English education, with the mind to grasp subjects as presented, and the judgment to pick out what is necessary for success, who seeks admission to the study or practice of law or medicine will do more for our American people and better in our law schools than the college graduate.

**Hon. Andrew S. Draper** — It seems to me that one voice, however feeble, ought to be raised in behalf of some substantial scholastic foundation for the profession. This is not a thing to be left entirely to professors in law schools or the men who are hankering for a law office. In all the history of this country we have been trying to found professional expertness upon nothing and it has not by any means been altogether a successful experiment. When a man is admitted to the practice of one of the learned professions it ought to mean something. Theoretically it does mean that this man is versed in the routine of professional work, that he has not only the catch words of the profession at his tongue's end, but is at home in any intellectual center, able to take any case that comes to his hands and apply professional knowledge to the particular circumstances of this individual case. There must be some scientific basis for professional life in this country, but it never will come till the requirements exacted before professional training can begin are increased. In England no one is permitted to enter a law office until he has either completed a university education or is so far along that he will complete it before he completes his law course. In France and Germany not only an academic education but about half of our college course is exacted as the condition precedent to the commencement of the study of law. The court of appeals has made various rules. If you were to ask any of the learned judges of the court of appeals what his opinion was on this subject he would frankly admit that the rule of the court of appeals was made on the same basis that Mr Depew makes the freight rates on the New York Central road,—just what the traffic will bear. They go just as far as they dare and have the requisite number of young men attend Brother Collin's law school at Ithaca and Brother Russell's law school in New York, so that Brother Collins and Brother Russell won't dog the members of the court of appeals to death in order to let down the rule a little more and help them out. It is a perfectly safe thing for us to say in



this country, particularly in the state of New York, that no man shall commence the study of law under recognition of the law or the courts of the state till he has at least completed an academic education. I am always suspicious of the results of examinations; if you will say that before a man shall commence the study of law or medicine or enter a divinity school with a view to the acquisition of the degree of B. D. he must have completed a course in an academy or high school of this state or its equivalent, the requirement will be complied with because at this stage in a young man's life he will comply with any exaction which the state authorities make, and he will do it cheerfully and promptly. After it is known that this secondary course is the basis of all the professions of the state, the respect which the profession will hold in the common sentiment of the people will be enlarged. There ought to be a decided movement in the state of New York, with the consent of the law schools or without it, to the end that the learned profession either of law or medicine or theology, to say nothing of other things which have come to be classed with the learned professions, shall rest upon something. That something should be at least an academic or secondary education.

**Pres. J. G. Schurman**—It is unjust to the law schools of the state of New York to state even by implication that they are opposed to raising the requirements for admission to candidacy as law students, or for admission to the final degree of LL. B. No men in the state of New York are more anxious to have these requirements for both examinations raised than the men who are connected with the professional schools and who have to deal with the poor material which is now sent to them. On the other hand, we must deal with conditions as they are. Not indeed, that we shall level down to the conditions, but that our advance must always to a certain extent be influenced by conditions as they exist. The case in other countries is not exactly as represented by the last speaker. In Great Britain a man does not need to be a graduated B. A. of any university in order to be admitted to a law school. In the University of Edinburgh, which has more to do perhaps with the outside world than any other institution in Great Britain, the examinations for admission to law and medical schools are about the same as examinations for



admission to any of our colleges and universities, a little below rather than above. And in Germany, as you well know, a man is admitted to a university for any of its courses, in law, medicine or theology, after he has completed a course in a gymnasium. We can not reason from the experience of European countries that any degree should be a condition for admission to the profession of law in the state of New York. Those of us who are in the universities and law schools would be delighted indeed were it possible to enforce such a high requirement.

Two questions are before us and I think it is well that they should be understood. One is, on what condition shall the LL. B. degree be granted? Shall it be granted after two, three or four years of study? From all that I have heard this morning, the unanimous opinion of the gentlemen who represent these schools is that the period of study in our law schools should be lengthened. Where it is now two years it should if possible be made three, and perhaps in a few where it is three years it should be made four. I do not think that any conditions exist which constitute an effectual obstacle to the raising of the standard for the LL. B. degree.

Coming to the second question, while I trust my ideals are as high as those of any member of this convocation, I can not speak with the same assurance as those who have gone before me. We might safely at the present time make the requirements for admission to our law courses, and for the profession of a lawyer as high as the requirements for admission to our B. A. or B. S. courses; not perhaps the same studies, but studies representing the same amount of time and giving the same culture and imparting the same training.

On the other hand, I differ from some of the speakers as regards the means by which this change should be brought about. My friend, Judge Draper, proposes that the law schools shall at once require high entrance examinations, the B. A. degree if you will. I think that the convocation of the University of the State of New York is interested not merely in the law schools of the state, which you may say are more or less private institutions, but in the entire legal profession of the state of New York; and therefore not merely in raising the entrance requirements to our law schools, but in raising the preliminary

examinations for admission to the bar throughout the entire state.

Now there is a way by which this convocation could make its influence felt. We can cooperate with the court of appeals. We are here primarily to express educational opinion and if we formulate our opinion on this subject and submit it to the court of appeals, I for one believe that the court of appeals would find therein a very strong argument for raising its requirements from the present 30 counts to 50 counts. This is the solution which I venture to suggest, and it seems to me a conservative one, in the interest of the law schools and above all in the interest of the legal profession of the state of New York.

**Hon. A. S. Draper** — Dr Schurman will permit me to suggest that he misunderstood me in supposing that I advocated the B. A. degree prior to the commencement of the law course. I say that we at least can go so far as to insist on an academic course prior to the law school course, but I did not and do not say that we should have a college degree. We are entirely agreed on that point I think.

I will say also, that my familiar acquaintance with the two gentlemen from the law schools who have spoken here was the justification for my strong remarks, and I am sure that they are not of that quality which is sensitive or thin-skinned in reference to the matter at all. If any one was injured it was neither of those two men.

**SHOULD SPECIAL ACADEMIC COURSES BE OFFERED IN PREPARATION FOR PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS?**

**J. Newton Fiero, Albany Law School** — So far as my observation goes, both as a member of the bar and as a lecturer on legal topics, I have no hesitation in saying that this question should be answered in the affirmative, so far as it relates to schools for the study of the law. The establishment of special academic courses seems to be a logical and almost necessary result of the higher standard of legal education, which is alike demanded by the public and enforced by the courts. That this is a matter of importance is clear from the fact that during 1892 nearly 1000 students filed their preliminary certificates with the court of appeals of this state, preparatory to entering upon the study of the law, and about one-half that number passed their final examinations.

Every effort is being made by those interested in the subject to further all measures tending to more thorough legal education, and the state Bar association is making a most earnest effort to obtain a uniform standard of examination for admission to the bar. The requirements for admission have been raised from time to time, so that the provisions of the rules of the court of appeals now require a reasonably fair equipment from the student entering upon the study of the law. The propriety of and necessity for higher education is recognized in these rules by the allowance of one year from the prescribed term of three years, to students who are college graduates. A uniform standard is also required from those who have not a diploma from college, and this standard is determined by the regents certificate, obtained only after examination in the manner prescribed by the regents of the University. As matters stand, therefore, a substantially uniform course of study is prescribed for a certain proportion of law students, namely, those who are college graduates. A uniform standard is also prescribed for the remaining students so far as the examination for the regents certificate is concerned, but no provision is made whereby a student may pursue a course specially adapted to fit him for such an examination.

The next and final step for the completion of the scheme is a special course which shall provide for the study of those branches required by the regents, as a requisite for the certificate granted by them preparatory to the study of the law. This will accomplish two objects :

1 The course of study will be fixed and determined and the student will be apprised of the length of time required for the completion of the proper academic course. 2 The course will be complete and thorough and examinations may be had with less trouble and uncertainty at the close of the course. A diploma should be a necessary requisite for admission to any law school in the state, thus fixing more fully and certainly than an examination the standing and qualifications of the student.

An affirmative answer to the question, Should professional schools admit on lower requirements than colleges? would dispose entirely of the matter in hand, since it would follow, if the same standard were required for admission to a school of law that is required for admission to a college, that the same course of preparation might be had and no necessity would exist for any special

academic course for a student about to pursue the study of the law ; and I very much incline to the opinion that such may be the true solution of the problem, and that the standard for admission to a school for the study of the law and for filing the certificate of clerkship in an office, should be the same as that for admission to the academic course of our colleges. The standard of education for the legal profession would thus be elevated and made certain, and we should have a condition of affairs in which a student would be at liberty to spend four years in the academic course at college, and by reason of such course, be given a deduction of one year upon the time devoted to the study of the law, or he might enter a professional school or a law office upon such an examination as would be required to enter upon the academic course of a college, and must in that case devote three years instead of two to the study of the law before qualified for admission to the bar.

It would seem, therefore, to be quite clear that a special academic course should be incumbent upon a student at law, whether preparing at a law school or in an office, in default of a diploma from the academic department of a college, and such a requirement would be alike in the interest of the law student and of the public whose servant the lawyer will become after his graduation and admission to the bar.

At this point my paper would close but for one or two suggestions made in different discussions before the convocation. I agree most heartily with what Sup't Draper has said with regard to higher education and the methods by which it should be acquired, with the very marked exception of his criticism with reference to the law schools and the teachers connected therewith, either individually or collectively. As to that I wish to express a most decided dissent. In my opinion, connected as I am with two law schools in this state, and from association with the faculties and trustees of those institutions, there is no class of men who are more anxious to do everything possible in the interest of learning and of the legal profession, in the way of a reasonable degree of requirement for admission to the bar, or who are better qualified by reason of learning and of experience, to judge, determine and decide upon that question. In any event

their judgment is and must be of decided value in that regard. That is something, however, like every other matter in the way of progress and improvement, which can not be brought about by individual effort. Individual effort, as opposed to organization, is ordinarily useless and futile, except where individualism becomes tyranny and despotism by reason of the abuse of the one-man power, and the result of individualism is either anarchy upon the one hand or despotism upon the other.

Organization such as exists in this state to-day in educational matters under the regents of the University of the State of New York, is the means by which the ends in view can be brought about with the greatest ease and the best results achieved, and I therefore urge upon this convocation the propriety and necessity of action in that direction, as an organized body, believing that with regard to the educational interests of the state there is no more potent power than this body. I speak from actual experience, by reason of the fact that an effort was recently made under the auspices of the New York State Bar association, through a committee of which I was a member, to bring about what is believed to be needed reform in the way of uniform examinations for admission to the bar; we were most materially aided by the regents of the University, and met with a very decided measure of success, showing the power and influence which can be exerted by organized effort.

I therefore urge upon this convocation systematic and organized action with a view to raising the standard of admission to professional schools and particularly the elevation of the educational requirements for admission to the bar, and to that end the adoption of a recommendation that special academic courses should be offered in professional schools.

**Prin. Francis J. Cheney** — The normal schools generally have not lacked an advocate on the floor of any educational assembly. I believe they are charged with being mutual admiration societies, never allowing their light to be hidden under a bushel, but it has always been allowed to shine, and perhaps with Judge Draper's patent reflector behind it. Nevertheless, normal schools are coming to be better understood and to better understand the work of other schools. So far as normal schools are concerned I should answer this question in the negative. 10 of the 11

normal schools of this state are engaged in work of about the same grade as most secondary schools. The work of the normal college is probably a little if not considerably in advance, but the other 10 are engaged in academic work. That is they are preparing teachers to go into academies and high schools and many of them into district schools for the purpose of instructing in branches that are taught in those schools.

The more pupils we can get into the normal schools that have completed the courses of study in secondary schools, the better we like it. We should prefer to take all of our pupils from that class. We would like it if the standard of admission in the normal schools were raised, as it is about to be raised for instance in the Bridgewater school of Massachusetts. They require the pupils who enter that school to have a diploma from a high school or academy in the state of Massachusetts. The high quality of work required in secondary schools by the University of the State of New York leads us to encourage our pupils to remain in these schools till they have finished this work. Accordingly the normal school principals, with the concurrence of the superintendent of public instruction, have recently resolved that they will give more credit than ever to the work done in secondary schools. Our circulars now say that full credit will be given for passcards in the following subjects: physiology, botany, civil government, zoology, U. S. history, physical geography, general history, astronomy, geology, solid geometry, trigonometry, elementary algebra, elementary rhetoric, Cæsar, Cicero, Virgil, Anabasis and Homer; with this exception, that we require them to take five weeks instruction in Virgil and Homer and 10 weeks in Cæsar and Xenophon without examination in order to teach the method of instruction. We also give 10 weeks credit in plane geometry, 10 in English literature, 10 in physics and 10 in chemistry.

I am entirely in accord with the sentiment that has been expressed in regard to the law schools and think it would be a great thing for the normal schools of the state if they would not allow admission except to pupils with an academic or high school diploma. Then we could confine ourselves to the legitimate work for which the normal schools were originated, purely professional work supplementing the work in academies. Then our graduates



can do work that will elevate this cause, so that if at the present time teaching is not recognized as a profession it soon will be. That might shut out a great many from the benefits of the normal schools, but they are provided for by the 100 or more training classes supported by the state. It is the wish of the normal schools to turn out such graduates as will be not simply professional people who know only one line of work and will by and by fossilize into dried up pedagogues, but men and women of affairs, who will take broad and liberal views of life, and will see something more than is found in the little peck measure in which they may be encircling themselves during their professional career; that they may look at other people beside those who are engaged in the profession in which they are engaged, realizing that back of all learning and all professions are those who teach the youth of the land who will grow up to be our lawyers, statesmen and physicians. It is not simply the teacher, nor the trustee, nor the school building that makes a school, but the swift current of pupils that flows from its doors into the wide activities of life to do their part in the world's great work.

**Prof. Achsah M. Ely** — I suppose women ought not to have any opinion in regard to law, medicine or morals, but as we intrust to the learned professions our lives, our property and our morals, it has always seemed to me a singular thing that we did not demand of the learned professions far better equipment than of any other; certainly as good an equipment as is demanded in the schools of technology which, according to Gen. Walker, fit men for the bread-winning professions. That, it seems to me, was the ground taken by Prof. Russell; men must have a place to earn a living, they must be taken care of. They have already gained a certain amount of substance and are entitled to the training which would enable them to become a force and a power in the world and to gain a livelihood. That may be desirable, but from a woman's standpoint it is unsatisfactory since most of us have to have our property insured and our lives and morals taken care of. As for the teaching profession, I think there is no discipline too great to ask of the teacher. To her do you intrust — and now I speak particularly of women because if there is any profession in which they have taken a hand it is that of



teaching — to the teacher you intrust the formative years of a child's life, and if she has only a little arithmetic or geography or grammar beyond what she teaches, she has no training, no formative influence. Give her the largest training possible and demand of her the utmost and she will return to you the children so trained and fitted for life that the world will be enriched and benefited and we will advance so much more rapidly in the next century that we shall scarcely know ourselves.

**Pres. John F. Crowell, *Trinity college, N. C.***—After all, society is the best judge of institutional results. I had occasion recently to look into one of the most famous law schools in the west before sending a brother there. He went, but from the inside and outside view, I have nothing but condemnation for the work that is done there. It is superficial, the teaching capacity poor and as a result the diplomas amount to nothing. My experience is that throughout society generally there is a silent distrust towards the lawyer as he enters on his work, and that distrust is often so great as to come to an actual condemnation. This may not be so in New York state, but it is actually so in many places in the west. And if it is so, is it not time to turn out a better product, and that means a smaller one. Society is not hungering nor thirsting for lawyers or physicians. If we reduced the number 50 per cent, society would be better off and the adjudication of rights and the people's health would be as well cared for as at present.

There is too much back water at the wheel. Dig deeper, and the product will be finer and more efficient.

Every profession has weak members who ought not to be there. The fault belongs to society in general, because it has not turned its attention to these things. An assembly of this kind gives the best point of view. If we want better lawyers and teachers and physicians we must have fewer of them.

**Dean G. W. Boskowitz, M. D.**—The medical profession in the state of New York has been materially benefited by new entrance examinations. It has cut off a few students, but the material that comes to our colleges is consequently better than that we had a few years ago. By establishing entrance examinations and the examination which follows the granting of the diploma from the college to license the practitioner, we have a

standard which has gained the respect of our citizens and of people outside the state, and that is the point desired by this great state of New York. If a man has received the degree of doctor of medicine within this state we know what examinations it has been necessary for him to pass.

The examination required for entrance is certainly not too high and is one that every man intending to study medicine should be perfectly willing to pass. As a direct result our degrees are recognized at home and abroad, while if no entrance examination is required each college may take as matriculants and students anybody they see fit and it is the college that has the lowest standard which is best known in foreign countries.

These examinations have been a good thing for all schools of the state and we are under obligations to the board of regents for having established them. I hope they will gradually raise the standard year by year, so that each year it will be a little more difficult to obtain the degree of M. D. and our doctors of medicine will all be men of whom we can feel proud.

**Bishop W : Croswell Doane** — It is a relief to be freed from the cloud which oppressed this assembly before Judge Draper sent forth the electric shock which cleared the atmosphere. During the first half hour it was a strange sensation to witness a body assembled to discuss the promotion of educational interests setting themselves to ridicule the value of sound learning. I am glad to be assured however that as an assembly we are in sympathy with the action of the regents in regard to elevating the standard of entrance to higher institutions. If the question is to be answered by a simple negative or affirmative, it answers itself; I believe, however, that professional schools may admit to instruction any who are capable of receiving it, but that they should not graduate any whose general educational equipment is inadequate. It is not the entrance that is important but the exit. The hopper should be made small so that when the grist comes out there shall not be an undue amount of chaff.

In order to bring the matter to a focus I ask the convocation to adopt the following resolution :

*Resolved*, As the judgment of the University convocation of the state of New York that every degree-conferring institution in the state should be governed by the rules adopted by the regents ; that their academic diploma, or its equivalent, should

be required as a minimum of preliminary education of every candidate for any degree which such institution may confer.

Prof. C. A. Collin — I am very happy, in the absence of Dr Schurman, to second the resolution of the vice-chancellor. The legal profession receives so much abuse, just and unjust, that if brother Draper had remembered that he was once a lawyer, if he is not still one, he would not have thought of suggesting that the representatives of the law schools could take any offense. We take no offense and usually make no answer to any charges against the legal profession or against lawyers. We let our acts answer for themselves. I trust I may be permitted to correct a misapprehension which I think exists in this audience with reference to the work which law schools have done in this state in elevating the standards for entrance to professional study outside of the law school as well as elevating the standard of the law school courses themselves. What I said before, modestly, in general terms, I shall now repeat specifically, that the rule of the court of appeals, enlarging by one year's general education the requirements for admission to the study of law, was due mainly to work of the representatives of the faculty of Cornell university law school with individual members of the court of appeals.

Before that rule was made I canvassed a meeting of the state Bar association with reference to obtaining the passage of a resolution to extend the term of law schools to three and four years respectively instead of two and three years as now. Although they defeated me unanimously on that proposition, the state Bar association, representing the legal profession, and the law schools, working not for profit but as thoroughly in the interests of sound learning as any educational department of the country, agree as to the desirability of elevating requirements for admission to the bar.

Nevertheless, I call the attention of this audience to your necessarily pedagogical bias in exaggerating the value of school education as against brains and hard work without culture. It is inevitable that the remarks of Judge Draper should electrify this audience but I am willing to stand alone as the prophet to call your attention to criticisms which you must make on yourselves if you face the truth. I congratulate the people of the state of New York that the legal profession, as represented by the state Bar

association, the law schools, as represented by their concurrent correspondence and action and this convocation of teachers, join together in requesting the court of appeals to raise the standard for admission to legal study and to the bar; but remember that among the uneducated men that come to the law schools are many of exceptional brains. It is not fair to compare them with representatives from the colleges, many of whom go to college because that is the only place to send them; but they are men from business walks of life who are exceptionally fit or they would not come. With all our devotion and loyalty to higher education we must not fall into intellectual snobbishness and refuse due credit to uneducated brains and hard work.

(The resolution was passed unanimously).

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### REGENTS EXAMINATIONS

The special order for this session was taken up for discussion.

**Prin. E. J. Peck** — The conference of principals yesterday voted unanimously that the following resolution be presented.

*Resolved*, That the continuance of both the January and March examinations is indispensable to the further success of the system of regents examinations in schools outside of the larger cities: and that the abolition of the March examination would seriously imperil the usefulness if not the continued existence of the smaller academies and departments of union schools.

They also instructed the principals council to give the reasons for their judgment.

1 The abolition of the March examination would cut off a large number of students who can take examinations this month only.

2 Those schools who make the regents credentials the basis of graduation would find the last term of the senior year too crowded for thorough and successful work.

3 The present courses of study have been arranged with the expectation that no changes would be made until 1895.

First, in 300 of the 400 schools in this state there are from 10 to 50 scholars who can come only after the fall work is done and must go home to milk the cow that feeds the children in the

cities and to make the gilt-edge butter that you prize so highly. These constitute a large proportion of the class for which this University of the State of New York was established and from which most of the men who have so eloquently spoken on this floor have come. It is from the little schools in the country districts, and the inspirations they have given, that your great men have come. Cripple those schools and you return the next president of Cornell university to the grocery store in which this one earned the privilege of going to school. I might multiply instances of this kind. There are from one to five boys of this kind who work five months that they may go to school five other months of the year. From these 300 academies every year go forth men who are the high grade students in the universities and colleges.

The governor of the state has reminded you of your duty in words which deserve to be letters of gold in pictures of silver. He has exhorted you to make education democratic. That is make education so that the people can get it; so that those bright boys can come and fill the positions which must be emptied by our departure. This democratic education means the education of democrats, not in the political sense, but in the old meaning of the term; men who can everywhere teach as men having authority in themselves and not as the scribes.

The second reason is even more vital. It affects not only the smaller academies and high schools but the larger ones. It is in the interest of sound learning throughout the state. It prevents that crowding and cramming, that worry with the strain and labor attendant on 10 to 15 examinations just before commencement.

The cry against state aid for education does not come from taxpayers of the communities in which these institutions are at work nor from those who want to see education given to the people fully and fairly. It comes from those who do not wish to have people educated out of their positions lest they shall get more than God intended them to by putting them in that position in life. They pray not that we may be enabled to do our duty in the positions in life to which it pleases the Lord our God to call us, but they interpolate "May these people be enabled to do their duty in the position in which they are and stay there."

We expected that the present program of examinations would continue until 1895. In exigencies perhaps it was expected to withdraw either the November or the March examination or both, but it was the full understanding of the principals that we should no more be compelled to demoralize our schools by rearranging our program every six months. I am aware of the great labor of continuing these examinations but the state is rich enough and the taxpayers are generous enough to pay for the labor that it requires.

The work has grown upon your hands. Didn't you expect it would? The child has grown so that its clothes are too short. Much has been said about paternalism. What do you think of the paternalism that cuts off the boy's feet to make his clothes long enough? Cut off the examinations and you cut off our feet. For the last few years you have called the academic principals here and you have turned the big guns of Cornell, Columbia, Harvard and Yale on us and have let them go off, telling us that we are not doing things that we ought to do and that we do the things that we ought not to do, and we feel very sick. We do not teach Greek well enough. We do not prepare boys for college well enough. Under the courtesy of the department and under the inspiration given to us we have made this work grow on your hands. It is not our fault. Go to the legislature, we will go with you, and ask for \$3000 or \$4000 to pay five or six more clerks. In the coming year the throwing out of one examination may prevent the building up of a manhood that would be worth \$100,000 to the state. The secretary says "If we do not have some relief here in the office there is going to be a funeral." I do not want any funerals in this office. I have received too many courtesies and too much appreciation for the humble efforts I have made to want any funerals there, but if there is going to be any funeral anywhere, I would rather it would be in the office than out where I live.

**Prin. I. H. Lawton** — The whole point is simply this. In 1890 the principals' program was arranged. We were promised that there should be no change for five years. We are willing to do anything that the regents call for, but as it is perfectly well understood by all of us, permanence is what we need in order to



manage the schools so that we can work in full harmony with the program as laid down by the regents. We ask for permanence and that the program be not changed till 1895.

**Pres. J. M. Taylor**—I believe there is a call for permanence but we must face the facts. No one interested in education would discourage any young man who desired to pursue a course of study in any academy in the state. But are these examinations essential to the education and training of these promising lads? Boys and girls go to school outside the state of New York and get a good education, though there are no regents examinations in March, January or November. No consideration of the pathos of the situation should influence our judgment in this matter.

I wish to make two points:

1 It is undesirable to multiply examinations in the school. This is a mere proposition bearing on education in general; the multiplication of these examinations takes a large amount of time from school work without producing the best results. It is true that there must be permanence and if an agreement has been made, it ought to be lived up to; but I think the principals of the state ought to consider whether in general it is well to keep increasing these examinations.

2 There is a financial consideration. If the policy of the state of New York in its examinations is dependent, as I am told it is, largely on the money that is paid out for the number who take the examinations, it is high time that procedure was stopped. If we are to attain the highest degree of education in this respect under guidance of the regents, there ought to be in some way a separation of this whole consideration of money from the question of examinations. The suggestion made by the Hon. Mr Warner might well be considered by the regents. Can the state not use this money so that the best students in every one of these schools can be encouraged to take all the education that he or she may be capable of? Would not it be more of an encouragement in your various schools? Would it not aid the cause of education more if money were used in that way rather than as at present? I put it not as a financial question but as one of education, for we are working together for the highest interests of the state.



**Prin. C. T. R. Smith** — I represent one of the smaller academies. We have a little over 100 students, a fair sample of about two thirds of the academies in the state. About one third comes from the country districts and fully one half of our best scholars is in that third. These boys and girls from the country districts manage to do as much in their two thirds of a year in school as the village boys and girls do in a whole year. Four years ago I was impressed by an argument for reducing the three examinations to two. It was argued that by giving half a year to a study, longer time could be given to each study. At a meeting in Syracuse also, Judge Draper called us to witness that the time had gone by for a winter school for the big boys and a summer school for the little girls. The training class was organized for two terms in the year and I resolved to make our course of study conform to that. The scholars entered in the fall and came up for the January examination. They had not had time to get through with the new studies they had taken up and but few of them passed the examination. After that they dropped out of the school. I asked them why and they said "We don't think it is fair to expect us to be ready for the examination in January. We think you are running the school for the benefit of the village boys and girls and we must go to the commercial college or some other place where we will have a fair chance." The more I think of it, I think that their rights were abridged.

The smaller academies and union schools, if they are to maintain a fair standard for graduation, can best do so by adopting the regents standard. The adoption of any standard of their own tends to lower them. It is essential that the March examination should be allowed students in the senior class, otherwise they have to carry over a large number of studies to the June examination, which worries them and sometimes makes them ill. It seems to me therefore that for educational considerations we ought to retain the March examination.

**Hon. A. S. Draper** — I preface my remarks with this declaration: If I had the opportunity to frame an ideal educational system for the state of New York, away back at the time of Noah, I would create a board of regents on substantially the same basis that we have now, and I continually wonder at the

foresight of the fathers of this state in setting up this particular tribunal for the supervision of advanced educational work. If the educational sentiment of the state of New York were to be polled to-day, 99 per cent of it would declare for the continuance of the board of regents in substantially its present framework. The chancellor referred to the fact that somewhere in the state there is some opposition to the board of regents; but I say, if there ever was it has practically disappeared, and the reminder of the chancellor is all that serves to recall to our memory that there ever was one.

I would create regents examinations too. The system has been of incalculable advantage. It gave a new impetus to educational work in the state and is to-day a continual stimulant.

But the distribution of money on the basis of the number of pupils passing examinations has mischief in it. I am not prepared to mention another system which would have less mischief in it, because I have not gone far enough to know whether such a one could be devised. I would add that instead of limiting the state's contribution to advanced education, I would enlarge it if I had the power. I also agree with Dr Taylor that the increase of examinations ought to stop; it has gone too far already. The action of the principals council in expressing this resolution is based on an erroneous conception of the functions and purposes of regents examinations. In extending the system you unnecessarily annoy and harass pupils and belittle the teaching force. I believe in leaving results to teachers, placing on them the responsibility of determining degrees of growth and assimilation, and in this way developing the teaching force itself. The proper end of regents examinations is not primarily the testing of pupils, but the testing of teachers, the stimulation of the aggregate advance of educational work in the state and detection of weak points. The power of institutions connected with the University can be determined as well by one examination as by three or four or five, and by decreasing the examinations remove the tax on the pupils and on the office. You prevent funerals at both ends of the line and accomplish the main object which the state had in view in distributing these funds to institutions of academic grade. In the school system with which I am at present associated, all examinations between grades have been discon-

tinued and the judgment of the teacher is conclusive; but an examination was put in between the elementary and high schools. This was done for the identical reason that I would continue regents examinations; in order to test the teachers in elementary schools to see where weak teaching was done in grammar schools and to know which schools were not up with the rest; in order that when pupils come from elementary schools to the high school they may have uniform training. This equalization of teaching power under the supervision of the regents in all parts of the state is the great aim of regents examinations and it does not seem to me important that they should be arranged to accommodate milking and chore time for the farmers of the state.

**Prin. D. C. Farr** — The individual must be exceedingly bold who presumes to take the floor after Dr Taylor and Judge Draper on an educational question, but I believe that the principals in this state can demonstrate that on this point they are wrong. I call to witness every educational institution of higher education in America or England that we are right; that there is an educational value in examinations and that they are not altogether designed for teachers. I believe in having teachers examined, but if it is good for the teacher it is also good for the pupil. Why is it that the presidents of our colleges find that the pupils trained in New York state under regents examinations are more successful in meeting such tests than pupils from other states? Amherst college is on record as expressing the opinion that students from New York state, trained under the regents system, are more successful in competitive examinations than any others.

I can understand that the president of a college may think that the students might be released from trying those examinations in college because they have been so excellently trained in the schools of this state under this system. There is probably a time when pupils can dispense with certain forms of educational training; but while they are in the academies they must have that training to fit them for the emergencies of life. It would be as well to ask the teacher to eat the food for the pupil as to do his work. Modern education is very easy for the pupil and

very hard for the teacher, but if I understand the philosophy of education at all, it is that work must be done in order to develop power and strength. If you want to train pupils to meet emergencies of life you must give them experience in meeting emergencies. It is a mistake to speak of multiplying examinations. For years there have been three examinations a year. No one asks for any more. In our experience of 20 or 30 years they have worked well and why should we give them up when we find that they do the work for which they were designed? It is not theory; we know that our students under regents examinations go to the colleges whether men's or women's, coeducational or coordinated, and do better than those not thus trained. Our experience shows that the career of a student is more fruitful educationally in consequence of this training. We plead not for money considerations, but on educational principles, because we want not only to educate teachers for the benefit of pupils but to train the pupil as well as the teacher.

**Prin. J. C. Norris** — Some of us wish to catch a train and we want to vote on this question before we leave. I move the adoption of the resolution as presented by Prin. Peck.

**Sup't Sherman Williams** — The question suggested by the resolutions presented by the principals touches nothing vital. I think the suggestion of Judge Draper does. It makes very little difference to a school or to the office, in view of the amount of work that the office has to do, whether we have the March examination or not. In either event, about the same number of papers will come into the office and about the same amount of time will be taken by the pupil. The office has to face the fact that they have undertaken a tremendous work when they propose to put their hand on every academic pupil in the state of New York and state where he is. It is a question whether, to use an expressive bit of slang, they have not bitten off more than they can chew. I think they have and are finding it out, and I question the wisdom of doing it, even if they can do it. But the office can put its hand on every teacher in the state and it will not take an examination in 64 different subjects to do it. We fancy the secretary already sees that the office is trying to do something that must inevitably break down, and he is trying to gather in a little.

But it is the system not its details that is under discussion. In my opinion, this matter of finance that Judge Draper says has something of mischief in it, has nothing else than mischief in it. It has been a good thing, but the state should find some other channel now in the interest of higher education. What is it to the village of Glens Falls whether a few hundred dollars more or less goes into its general fund or not. Not a single thing is done in that village that would not be done if we did not get that money. It counts for nothing. It might as well be dumped into the Albany basin so far as results are concerned. What does it amount to so far as general education is concerned, that the principal of an academy personally gets a few hundred dollars more or less? A very good thing for him I grant, but the state might do something with that money that otherwise would not be done. It might use that money for scholarships or provide better material equipment of the school in laboratory or reference books or something of that kind, but in my judgment it does now nothing but harm.

**Prof. Marcellus Oakey** — I second the motion that this resolution be adopted. It is not a theory but a condition which confronts us. I trust that Judge Draper's speech will be preserved and read if he is not here when this whole question of the regents system comes up in 1895. To-day I hope we shall vote on the resolution, and when the regents wish to discuss the question as to how they can best aid the academies in their work they will give enough time to discuss a new system. The principals council I think agree with much that has been said, but the smaller academies as they exist now must get what help they can from credentials. This has grown under the regents system so that now even attendance at school is not rewarded, probably on account of expense in the office, so if small schools are to be helped at all it must be through the credentials which they earn. I agree with every word that has been said about finances. It is horrible, but it is the condition to-day, and they must suffer in comparison with the other schools, if it be not continued till 1895.

Our ordinary courses of study are arranged on the basis of the March or three examinations. It is not arranged for the country pupils, but the whole system of the school is on that basis.

**Hon. A. S. Draper** — Before that speech of mine is preserved I want to correct a misconception. I did not take the position, and do not, that there shall be no examination of pupils. I do not want to be so understood. I think the test of the pupil is the best possible test of the teacher. I am not sure that one examination a year for the pupil would work judiciously, but I do not think so much ought to depend on the pupil's ability to pass the examination. However, if the principals will agree to vote thus in 1895, I will yield to the condition of things.

**Sec. Melvil Dewey** — This question is altogether too serious to be voted on in as small a meeting as this this morning. It is suggested by the chairman of the Convocation council that this resolution be referred to the three councils, the principals council, the college council — for the college men are as thoroughly interested as the principals in the educational question of the examinations — and the Convocation council, each to examine the question independently and report the results to the regents in writing. They will have the proceedings of this meeting before them and a chance to correspond and get statistics while we shall have the subject presented from three standpoints.

I move that this resolution be referred to the three councils, each to report to the regents in writing.

**Prin. R. S. Keyser** — The resolution as passed in the principals meeting was to request the principals council to state that that was the opinion of the principals meeting. The report should have come in that way and not as a resolution to be adopted here.

**Sec. Dewey** — It is a pure mistake to speak of reduction of the academic fund by the increased expenses of conducting the examinations. Not one penny of the \$106,000 appropriation can be used for examinations or office expenses. For each of these there is an entirely separate appropriation. The \$106,000 is all for the academies. The amount received for attendance has been greatly reduced by several obvious causes. The amount remaining the same from year to year, a greatly increased number of schools have been admitted to the University and to a share in it. More students are in attendance. As a result of the revision of 1890 there has been a remarkable increase in the number of students who have been induced to stick to systematic, continuous work till they complete one of the prescribed courses for which a cer-



tificate or diploma is granted. Nothing more hopeful and encouraging could have occurred unless it may be the similar increase in the amount raised from local sources for buying books and apparatus. The regents grant from the \$106,000 an equal amount. This item has gained about 400 per cent in four years. Thus it is clear that we should take great pride in each of the cases which have diminished the money paid for attendance. It is the embarrassment of unexpected success. To make our discussion profitable we must keep the facts in mind. To assume that the regents distribute this \$106,000 simply for passing examinations is all wrong. They gave last year \$18,000 for books and apparatus, which carried with it \$18,000 raised from local sources. The details of distribution since 1880 are now being printed in our report for you all to study. The manuscript is here on the table for your reference. The footings show that more than twice as much has been given for attendance as for credentials. Finally, this fraction of the whole is not given for passing examinations simply, for that would mean an allowance for every pass card earned in any subject. The apportionment is, however, for completing prescribed courses, short and long, and as a stimulus to systematic, continuous work. When this system of apportionment was adopted the plan was submitted to every principal in the state for criticism and suggestions. It was discussed at length at the Syracuse conference and it represented the consensus of the schools concerned, not a plan of the office. It combines the two systems of attendance and results in what seemed at the time the wisest ratio. As explained, the marked development has disturbed this ratio and it needs revision. I know I speak the sentiment of the regents in saying that they are anxious to get the opinion of the convocation and of all others interested in order that they may approximate as nearly as possible to what has always been their aim in administering this trust, to put every dollar where it will do the most good for academic education in New York.



## SUMMER SCHOOLS AND THEIR RELATION TO HIGHER EDUCATION

REV. JOHN F. MULLANY, SACRED HEART ACADEMY, SYRACUSE

I feel complimented to be invited by our worthy secretary, Mr Melvil Dewey, to address such a distinguished assemblage of educators, on summer schools and their relations to our educational institutions. I regret that the time given me to prepare has been very limited and consequently I must be satisfied with giving a brief outline of summer schools in general, and the latest addition, the Catholic Summer School of America.

Summer schools are a modern growth, though the germ may be traced back to Christianity. Even prior to that time the refined Greeks and Romans had their delightful gatherings, far removed from city life, at which the favored few listened to the best thoughts of their poets, philosophers and distinguished orators. We can imagine how delightful it must have been for the élite of Greece and Rome to meet congenial spirits at their summer resorts and discuss educational subjects with the best culture of their age, while at the same time enjoying the pleasure of rest and ease. Our divine master, Jesus Christ, while sojourning here on earth, delivered his wonderful instructions away from the crowded haunts of men, and the inspired book tells us that the multitudes followed him to the grassy mountain side, the shady grove and the seashore. Down through centuries the people sought recreation of mind and body in leaving large business centers to listen to the eloquence and wisdom of gifted and pious men who had a message for the world. We know that in the first century of the Christian era, the fathers of the church attracted great numbers to their distant retreats, where they preached to them the Word of God, and made known to them the higher secrets of the spiritual life. The crusaders of the middle ages were inspired by men consumed with a burning desire of honoring the Saviour of the world by wresting from the enemies of the cross, the land that was made sacred by the scenes of His birth, His labors and His death. Multitudes followed the leaders of this movement from town to town throughout the

length and breadth of Europe, and thus beneath the canopy of heaven the people were filled with an enthusiasm that resulted in exchanging the civilization of the east with the west.

During the so-called dark ages, those ages of faith that produced the cathedrals of Europe which to-day are the wonder of the world, that laid the foundations of the great medieval universities that produced such intellectual lights as a St Thomas and a St Bernard, a Dante and a Roger Bacon, during these ages, to my mind, the germ of the summer schools flourished. From every land multitudes flocked to the universities, drawn thither by the fame of their celebrated teachers. We have the traditions of these days, and it would not require a very great stretch of the imagination to suppose that summer schools clustered around these seats of learning and that the people of means and leisure, found enjoyment and recreation in listening to the distinguished educators of those remote times. At all events the spirit of the church has been and is to foster knowledge and piety in the souls and the intellects of her children. This she accomplishes through her various educational agencies, her universities, her colleges, her academies and her schools. To my mind the summer school is the natural growth of an idea that was popular with the Greeks and Romans, that later was grafted into the development of the Christian church, that flourished during the medieval university period, and that can be traced in the catholic pilgrimages of the past and present.

The modern summer school is an American growth, and to-day there is scarcely a secular university of note, but has its summer school. Chautauqua has furnished the model for most of these enterprises. At present there are over 100 in this country, and each succeeding year adds to the number. They are all useful institutions and from their point of view are doing much good. The committee of Roman catholics who visited Chautauqua last August were pleased with the manner in which this school was conducted. They found large numbers of earnest students from every walk of life pursuing studies under the best teachers that could be secured.

The catholics of America made the experiment of a summer school at New London last year and succeeded beyond their brightest expectations. The effort was hailed by advanced

thinkers among the clergy and laity as a step in keeping with the trend of modern thought. It might be interesting to the convocation to outline our beginning. Prior to the first session, meetings were held in the leading cities of this and other states at which the originators and projectors explained the advantages of such a movement. Encouragement came from every quarter. The archbishop of New York in whose province the idea was first conceived, gave it his sanction and blessing. Similar indorsements were received from the archbishops, bishops and clergy of the entire country; even Canada, Australia and England sent greetings. The novelty of the movement attracted the attention of the entire catholic world, and the experiment was watched with more than common interest. The press, secular and religious, gave most favorable reports, and in many instances printed in full the proceedings of the first session.

The object of the Catholic summer school of America is to increase the facilities for busy people as well as those of leisure, to pursue lines of study in various departments of knowledge, by providing opportunities of getting instruction from eminent specialists. It is not intended to have the scope of the work limited to any class of people, but rather to establish an intellectual center, where any one with serious purpose may come and find new incentives to efforts of self-improvement. Here in the leisure of a summer vacation, without great expense, one may listen to the best thought of the world condensed and presented by unselfish masters of study. The opportunity thus provided of combining a number of different classes of students for mutual improvement, will be most acceptable to professors and lecturers who wish to have an appreciative audience to enjoy with them the fruits of the latest research in history, literature, natural science and other branches of learning. All the subjects treated are to be considered in the light of Christian truth, according to Cardinal Newman's declaration, "Truth is the object of knowledge of whatever kind; and truth means facts and their relations." "Religious truth is not only a portion but a condition of knowledge. To blot it out is nothing short of unraveling the web of university teaching."

Our Catholic summer school of America has found a permanent home on the shores of Lake Champlain, a spot remarkable for

its natural scenery as well as its historical incidents. To the student of American history, Lake Champlain has always the most profound interest and here the lover of nature in her visible charms, will find genuine delight. On the shores of the lake, on its waters, and in the adjacent country, events have transpired the consequences of which have had a lasting effect on the civilization of our country. Two of the most powerful nations of the world, France and England, contended for the supremacy. Here they fought many bloody battles, which resulted in victory for the latter. The French, however, won a conquest more enduring in the salvation of countless souls, and the very ground is sacred and sanctified by the martyrdom of the fearless missionaries who sacrificed their lives for the conversion of the children of the forest. This is the spot selected for the first catholic summer school; a spot where the lovers of nature and the seekers after rest and recreation may behold scenery the most enchanting in the world. Beneath you is the lake as calm and smooth as a mirror, its waters as clear as crystal glistening in the sunlight, while the mountains are reflected down in its depths. Islands fertile and rich in vegetation dot the lake, Valcour being but a half mile distant. Looking to the east you see the Green mountains of Vermont running north and south, while to the west rise majestically the Adirondacks of New York. The whole magnificent scene bursts upon you like a vision and holds you entranced. Mountains and valleys, lake and islands may be seen at a glance and afford a vista that can not be surpassed the world over. Our permanent home can be developed beautifully on the plan of the Hotel Champlain grounds, which in many respects are the finest in the world. Here we will have ample room and charming sites for lecture halls, class buildings, chapel, hotels, pavilions, cottages, also for parks, courts for games, lawns, drives, walks, retreats for study, reading, reflection and quiet conversation. Here in short is an ideal spot to foster intellectual culture in harmony with true Christian faith, while at the same time combining healthful recreation and profitable entertainment.

In this modern classic school we will meet representative gatherings of catholics assembled to hear the teachings of eminent professors and lecturers whose position and reputation will be a guarantee of sound catholic instruction. Here we will meet men and women distinguished in every walk of life, men

eminent in professional and business avocation, priests and lawyers, doctors and scientists, students, journalists and philosophers. The teachers in our public and parochial schools, the merchant and the man of leisure; in a word all classes seeking rest from the overworked powers of mind and body, living in cordial fellowship and fostering and strengthening bonds of union and sympathy to intelligently cope with error and calumny. Here we can hold conferences to devise plans for the improvement of auxiliary church work, reading circles and charitable aid societies. Here our societies may have their reunions and conventions; our religious teaching communities of men and women who are over worked during the year, acting upon the suggestion of some of our church dignitaries, might here partake of the advantages of such a school and keep themselves informed of the latest and most improved methods of educational work. Here the honest seekers after truth outside the catholic church would be welcome to examine our doctrines and position on the leading questions of the hour. This would be the means of breaking down prejudice and unneighborly feelings towards our mother church and her faithful children. Here catholics too, who never have had a thorough catholic training, might receive correct ideas on the questions of theology and philosophy, and thus might be much benefited. Striking instances of such examples fell under my observation last summer at the New London session.

I believe the work of the summer schools will be a great aid to all our educational institutions. Our colleges and universities will be strengthened by such schools, as professors and educators will have an opportunity of meeting their pupils under a discipline different from that of a class room, thus reviving old friendships, which grow with time stronger between pupils and teachers. Parents and guardians will become better acquainted with men and women to whom are confided the care of their children. Confidence and goodwill shall thus be strengthened. Another advantage of the summer school will be the mutual interchange of thought between men of all creeds and shades of opinion engaged in the work of teaching. The clash of thought must be beneficial in broadening the minds of men on methods and systems of education. The academies of our country have a large

class of young people going forth from their portals year after year, for whom regular school work is finished. They are either unwilling or unable to continue their courses through college and university. For such the summer school will be a blessing, because in all probability many of that class can find means and leisure to attend such a place during a few weeks of the year, and by listening to lectures on congenial subjects, they may be encouraged to continue their studies on such lines as the university extension plan proposes, which already has been successfully carried on in many of our educational institutions, and here in this state under the direction of the regents of the University.

Another important result will be the reaching of the masses through the powerful agency of the secular and religious press, through the printing and sending forth of books and pamphlets which will be issued year after year from our summer schools. These are a few of the benefits to be derived from the establishment of such schools.

Before closing I wish to thank the honorable body, the regents of the University of the State of New York, for the assistance they have rendered the projectors of the Catholic summer school, and the interest they have taken in granting us through their charter, all the privileges of the University. We hail it as a step toward the dawn of a brighter future. I can not better close this paper, than by quoting an interview published in the *New York World* a few days ago, with no less a personage than his Eminence Cardinal Gibbons of Baltimore, in which he says: "I wish the movement — the Catholic summer school — every success. Our clergy and laity have never had a central meeting place where all could gather together without awkwardness and amicably discuss questions of interest to all. The success of the Catholic congress held four years ago in Baltimore showed the need of it. The plan of the summer school seems suitable for this purpose. Pupils and teachers can meet at its reunion and learn to know one another outside school formalities. Educators can compare notes; specialists can meet and confer. This bringing together of theorists and men of affairs, clergy and laity, religious and secular, can not but have a good effect if wisely and safely managed. I look to a time not far distant, when more than one summer school will flourish in convenient sections of the country. The great west has splendid



material for a summer school, and no doubt will soon begin an enterprise of her own. The wider the views of the managers of these schools the more representative the lecturers, the larger will be the circle of their influence." These words coming from so eminent a source are a great stimulus and encouragement to the originators and promoters of the Catholic summer school, to make it the medium of increasing in their hearts the love of God and of their neighbor, and of cultivating their intellects in science and in a knowledge of revealed religion, so that they may become true catholics and loyal citizens.

**Chanc. A. J. Upson** — This convocation to me as well as others, I am sure has been a favorable disappointment. Though we thought in this Columbian year we might not have a large attendance, it has been very large and we have had most admirable papers, well presented and much interesting discussion. Personally, it is a great pleasure that I have to remember this first convocation with which I have had official relation as so interesting and successful and I feel that I express the opinion of all here that we have been indebted to a kind providence during these three beautiful days for the circumstances in which we have been placed and for the kindly intercourse between us all.

The benediction was pronounced by Right Rev. William Crosswell Doane, vice-chancellor of the University. *Adjourned.*

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### NECROLOGY, 1892-93

REPORT OF COMMITTEE BY C: W: BARDEEN, SYRACUSE, N. Y.

It does not fall within the province of your committee to report upon the deaths during the year of the two senior members of the board of regents, since eloquent tribute has been paid to their memory at a special meeting held in this chamber.<sup>a</sup>

Among college presidents there has been one death: that on September 21, of JONATHAN ALLEN, president of Alfred university.

He was born in Alfred, January 26, 1823, within a mile of where his lifework was accomplished. He was a member of the first graduating class of Alfred academy, and in 1846 he graduated from Oberlin college, and became assistant principal and part owner of Alfred academy. Here his executive power was

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<sup>a</sup> The memorial addresses follow this report.



at once recognized, and it was under his leadership that the theological department was organized and the charter as a university secured.

He was elected the first president of Alfred university, but declined in favor of his elder colleague, Prof. Wm. C. Kenyon. On President Kenyon's retirement in 1867, Dr Allen was again elected president, and so continued for a quarter of a century. His especial pride was the Steinheim building, and its fine collection of minerals.

He was also, until in recent years, an influential clergyman. He was practically the organizer of the Seventh-day baptist education society, and for a long time its corresponding secretary. He was several times president of the General conference. His last baccalaureate sermon is published in the *Sabbath recorder* of September 29. Its concluding paragraph well describes the picture of President Allen himself, as it is held in the mental eye of all his graduates:

Then can be announced:

“ A man or woman coming,  
Perhaps you are the one,  
A great individual, fluid, chaste, affectionate, compassionate,  
A life that shall be copious, earnest, bold,  
An old age that shall lightly and joyfully meet its translation.”

A man apart from other men, embodying in himself much of the majesty of earth, and reflecting in his life foreglimpses of the glory of heaven, his presence a perpetual benediction.

“ He stands a man now, stately, strong and wise,  
One great aim, like a guiding star before,  
Which tasks strength, wisdom, stateliness to follow,  
So shall he go on, greatening to the end —  
The man of men.”

In accordance with his wish, his body was cremated at Buffalo, and the ashes were deposited in a Greek vase of white alabaster, one of his most precious possessions in the Steinheim.

Two deaths among college professors have occurred.

Aug. 31, at Lenox, Mass., JEAN ROEMER, senior professor of French in the College of the City of New York, where he had taught since 1848. He was born in 1809, son of Charles George Augustus, heir-apparent to the duchy of Brunswick, and of Frederica Louise Wilhelmina, sister of William 1 of Holland.

He received a military education, served in the war of secession between Holland and Belgium, went on an embassy to Russia, and afterward, while residing in Naples, became an intimate friend of the prince of Syracuse. Some articles which he published offended King Ferdinand 2, and he was recalled in 1845.

On the death of William 1, in 1843, he became heir to the throne, and endeavored to secure his title. This was denied and he was forced to emigrate to America, where remittances were made to him. In the '60's it was said that a conference of German sovereigns counseled together as to placing him on the throne of Holland, and it is reported that he carried on correspondence with Bismarck with reference to this.

All this sounds like a page from continental history. Yet it is about a genial, ever courteous old gentleman, known to the boys of New York simply as a good teacher and a firm disciplinarian, who never talked about his private affairs. He was the author of several books, including a dictionary of French idioms, polyglot readers, *Cours de lection et de traduction*, *Principles of general grammar*, and *Origins of the English people and of the English language*. He was fond of horses, and his *Cavalry tactics*, for a time used as a text-book at West Point, is still the basis of instruction there.

Oct. 6, at Hamilton, LUCIEN M. OSBORN, LL.D., professor of physics and astronomy in Colgate university. He was born in 1823 at Ashtabula, Ohio, and graduated from Colgate in 1847. He taught for a time in Hamilton academy, and as principal of the public school at Morrisville. In 1851 he became principal of the Colgate grammar school, and assistant professor of mathematics in the university. In 1853 he was made professor of mathematics, and in 1868 professor of natural sciences. In 1873 he accepted the chair which he held at the time of his death, which occurred after 41 years of continuous service in this institution. He was also a man eminently useful in the community, not only in church work, but in the practical affairs of his neighbors. He carried on a farm, was an intelligent scientific farmer, and was president of the farmers' club of that village.

Among academy principals the deaths have been the following:

Sept. 30, in Skaneateles, CHARLES O. ROUNDY, first principal of the Syracuse high school. He was born in Spafford, May, 1823, and after attending the academy at Homer began his lifework as a teacher. In 1852 he succeeded Mr Stetson as principal of a grammar school, Syracuse, and in 1855 upon the establishment of a high school he became its principal, which position he held until 1871. His health had been enfeebled, but after a year or two of traveling he became principal of the union school at Moravia, where he remained for several years. He then retired to his farm in Skaneateles, but still continued to teach in his own district for the love of the work. He was for many years a constant attendant upon the State Teachers' association, and for several years was chairman of the committee on necrology.

Nov. 3, in Brooklyn, aged 60, WHEATON A. WELCH, principal of no. 35. He was born in Royalton, near Lockport, and after some teaching graduated from the Albany Normal in 1855. He was principal of the school at Catskill for 11 years, of Baldwinsville academy for two years, of Onondaga academy, and of Prescott school, Syracuse. In 1872 he became principal of no. 7, Brooklyn, and in 1874 was transferred to no. 35, one of the largest in the city.

April 16, at Monticello, J. S. CROMBIE, principal of Adelphi academy. He was born in Pontiac, Mich., in 1854, and was graduated from the University of Michigan in 1877. Immediately he became principal of the school at Coldwater, Mich., was superintendent from 1878 to 1881 there, and from 1881 to 1885 in Big Rapids, and in 1885 was called to the principalship of the Central high school at Minneapolis, Minn., where he was very successful. In the summer of 1892 he accepted the principalship of the Adelphi academy. He overworked himself during December and January, preparing a thesis of over 700 pages on *The Republic of Switzerland*, for which he expected to receive in June the doctor's degree from the University of Minnesota. He completed this work on Feb. 4, and left the Brooklyn library at dusk with his manuscript. It was a raw day, and he took a severe cold, which developed later into symptoms of alarming illness. As soon as he was able to go, his physician sent him to Monticello, where he remained from March 3 to March 31. He returned to his work in Brooklyn and on April 8 was advised to go back to Monticello, but his case was already hopeless.

May 18, in Greenbush, aged 54, HUGH R. JOLLEY, principal of the union school. He was born in South Bethlehem, and had taught there and at Coxsackie, at Clyde, and at Herkimer. His disease was cancer of the stomach, and his case had been hopeless for a long time.

May 23, in New York city, Mrs EMMA WILLARD SCUDDER. She was a granddaughter of Mrs Emma Willard, and was for some time previous to her marriage principal of Troy seminary.

May 23, at Saratoga Springs, HIRAM A. WILSON, prominent in the establishment of the public school system of that village. He was born in Winchester, Conn., December 19, 1817, and graduated from Wesleyan university in 1838. He conducted a missionary school in Buenos Ayres for two years, and in 1841 became principal of the Jonesville academy, Saratoga county, where he remained for 20 years. He was afterward for some years superintendent of schools in Brattleboro, Vt. He came from Saratoga in 1863, and was for some time president of the board of education.

June 11, in Oswego, EMERSON JOHN HAMILTON, Ph. D., superintendent of schools. He was born in Essex, Vt., December 22, 1817, and graduated from the University of Vermont in 1842. He taught two years in Williston, Vt., and afterward at Oneida, N. Y., at Wellsboro, Pa., and at Bath, N. Y., in each of the latter places for five years. He came to Oswego in 1854 as principal of the high school, where he remained till 1872, when he established a private classical school for boys. On the death of Mr Douglass in 1884 he was elected superintendent of schools, which position he held at the time of his death. He had also been alderman in 1879-80, and mayor of the city in 1881. At his death the city's flag was floated at half-mast.

He was a frequent attendant at teachers associations, and in his earlier years took a prominent part, being for a time one of the editors of the *New York teacher*. One of the city journals says of him:

"He was a teacher in the full and true meaning of the term. He thoroughly understood and perfectly appreciated the gravity of the responsibilities assumed by one who undertakes the education of youth—responsibilities than which there are none greater. For this work he was abundantly prepared, and to it

he gave a long, earnest and laborious life, his best years being spent in Oswego. There is sincere sorrow in hundreds of our homes because of the loss of one at whose knee the fathers and mothers of to-day received the priceless rudiments of education, as well as the lessons of industry, sobriety, culture and morality. No matter whether one came in contact with Mr Hamilton in the public school as instructor, in an official capacity, in business relations, or in the church, serving the God he loved, he was always the same — gentle, refined, dignified and manly, a good citizen and a husband and father who fulfilled every duty. In the position which he held when he died he watched over the children of the public schools with fatherly interest. It has been a common thing for teachers to send mischievous and wayward boys, in need of a fatherly talk and good advice, to Secretary Hamilton, and he spent much time in dealing with such cases. Only a few weeks ago the writer of these lines had occasion to call at the secretary's office, and while there two boys who had given not only their teachers but their parents much annoyance, came into the office with a note to the secretary. He sat down in a big chair, took one of the little fellows on his knee and drew the other to his side. He first by adroit questioning drew from the boys the circumstances of their home life and a confession of their wrong doing. The mother of one was a poor widow. After getting these facts he stroked first one head and then the other, and proceeded with such a kind, sensible, fatherly talk that the two boys were soon sobbing at his knees. Then he encouraged them, told them how it was possible for them to rise in the world and become great men, impressed the duty of obedience first to the parents and then to the teacher, asked them to come to visit him every Saturday, and finally sent them home thoroughly repentant. He stated after the departure of the boys that much of his time was passed in that way. There is no measuring, with the human mind at least, the amount of good this man has accomplished in the community in this quiet, gentle way, or how many lives he has turned from a bad beginning to higher and better things. For this reason he was peculiarly well equipped for the duties of the position he filled so well. The most eloquent and touching tribute to his memory will be the tears of the children.

“Mr Hamilton was a fine specimen of physical manhood, over six feet in height and well proportioned, and of a noble and dignified presence. His manner was modest and unobtrusive. He shrank from notoriety, and the contention of partisans was distasteful to him. He had strong convictions—religious and political. These governed him always—but they did not make him hateful or intolerant. The stars in their courses were not more regular than he in his attendance at church and Sunday school. He was a republican in politics—one of the strictest sort. He believed as firmly in the doctrines of his party as he did in those of his church, and while he rarely, if ever, took part in internecine conflicts, he never failed to vote.”

Among assistants in academies, only some of the more prominent can be mentioned.

Dec. 27, in New York, of pneumonia, **ELBRIDGE C. ALLEN**. Born in Colosse, Oswego county, 1821, he was a graduate of Hamilton college, and received the degree of B. A. from Madison university. He was principal of academies in Utica; Morristown, N. J.; Beverly, Mass.; Derby, Vt.; Fisherville, N. H.; Sing Sing, N. Y.; Cape Vincent, N. Y., and Dixon and Waukegan, Ill. For nearly 10 years he held the chair of mathematics in the Polytechnic collegiate institute, Brooklyn. From 1860 to 1870 he was actuary of the *Ætna* life insurance company of Cincinnati, and for six years past he had been an attaché of the Actuaries department of the New York life insurance company.

Jan. 1, in Cambridge, Mass., **EBEN NORTON HORSFORD**, the eminent professor of chemistry in Harvard university. He was born in Moscow, Livingston county, N. Y., July 27, 1818, his father being Jerediah Horsford, a colonel in the war of 1812 and member of congress; and graduated from the Rensselaer Polytechnic institute in 1838. Two years later he was appointed teacher of mathematics and natural sciences in the Albany female academy, where he remained four years. He then went to Germany and spent two years in the study of analytical chemistry and experimental research in the Liebig laboratory at Giessen. On his return to the United States Prof. Horsford was elected to the Rumford professorship of science applied to the arts in Harvard, and soon after he submitted to Abbott Lawrence a



plan for a department of analytical and applied chemistry which led to the formation of the Lawrence Scientific school at Cambridge. Prof. Horsford spent the next 16 years in the first laboratory organized and equipped for instruction in analytical chemistry in this country. He then resigned to go into the business of manufacturing chemicals in Providence, R. I., and afterward became president of the Rumford Chemical works in Boston.

Feb. 16, at Fulton, CHARLES S. EGGLESTON, for 15 years teacher of Greek in Falley seminary. For the last 30 years he had been a bookseller in Fulton.

March 21, in New York, CHARLES W. SHELDON, instructor in Greek in Colgate academy. He graduated from Colgate in 1881 with the highest honors of his class, and had taught in the academy for the past seven years. His death was the result of an operation.

June 3, at Bostwick, Neb., suddenly, MARY A. RIPLEY, teacher in Buffalo from 1854 to 1888.

The *News* says she undoubtedly had a greater influence over the young men of Buffalo than any other teacher in the public schools, partly on account of her long service, and partly on account of her strength of character. She began in 1854 in no. 7, and in 1861 was transferred to the high school. From Feb. 29 to July 12, 1866, she was teacher of arithmetic and grammar in the Albany Normal, but except for these five months she taught constantly in the high school for 27 years, most of the time as preceptress of the boy's department. The *News* says:

"Many who never had the good fortune to come within the sphere of Miss Ripley's personal influence supposed from her odd appearance that she was a crank, or judged from her short hair and semi-masculine garb that she was inclined to be mannish. The truth was, she was so thoroughly in earnest about realities that she never bothered herself much about appearances. She was unusually independent in thought, but not at all masculine. 'There ought to be something in any achievement wrought out by women,' she once wrote, 'which makes it to differ from the work of man. I believe that there is, and this difference is the special gain to society, needing, as it does, all possible varieties of excellence, all results of individuality. To me it seems that the



peculiar contribution of woman to the great mass of result is to be a finer spiritual force, a fluent, interpenetrating influence which shall inhere in whatever her hand accomplishes. It seems to me that as brute force, whether in man or woman, shall be more and more recognized, more and more shall these subtle powers find sphere and play; more and more shall we come to know that these are the eternal energies, that they shall regenerate the race and summon into our daily life the sweetness and peace, the high aspiration and supreme content which shall make the earth a delight in the universe, shall make these troubled continents into Edens fairer than poet's dream or prophet's vision.' "

At a memorial meeting held in Buffalo, Superintendent Emerson said of her:

"In the school room she was impatient of sham and false pretences. She did nothing for show; she resisted the temptation always present in teaching to drop into formalism and routine; she was never mechanical, never bookish. She knew that the meaning behind the words is of more importance than the words themselves; she felt that 'the letter killeth, while the spirit maketh alive.' Hers was no strict or narrow construction of the teacher's duties. She sought to supplement the routine work with the collateral and related work—the apt illustration, the suggestion here, the moral there, the encouragement to original thought and investigation, the bringing in of related facts and principles. She aimed to make the most of herself by making the most of her pupils. She was not a woman of the profoundest learning; her preparation for her calling was not along the beaten track of regular study at school: but she was a born teacher. She took in the character and mental disposition of her pupils as Rufus Choate did of a jury. She possessed not only wonderful tact, but almost infinite patience. If she saw that a boy's understanding of a principle was confused, she gave him personal attention until that principle was clearly seen. If a pupil gave signs of interest in a character she mentioned, she had a book ready to lend him that she might take advantage of his awakened interest. I have known her to keep a note book in which she recorded the pupil's name, with instances of misunderstanding or ignorance brought out by daily recitations or exam-

ination, that she might send her shot straight to the mark the next day or the next term. Such teachers turn darkness into light. It requires care and concentration to teach in this way, while it is easier and, to external appearance, often as showy, simply to maintain the outward forms of instruction."

A volume of her poems was published in 1867, mostly verses inspired by the war, and giving voice to her strong anti-slavery sentiments. She also prepared a parsing book which has had a large sale.

Among promoters and benefactors of academic institutions, the deaths of two should be recorded.

Sept. 27, in Syracuse, GEORGE FRANKLIN COMSTOCK. He was born in Williamstown, Aug. 24, 1811, and secured, by teaching, the money to graduate from Union college in 1834. He taught classics in Utica while pursuing his law studies, and in 1837 was made the first reporter to the court of appeals; in 1852 he was made solicitor of the treasury of the United States; in 1855 he was elected to the court of appeals, and for two years he was chief judge. He began the movement to found Syracuse university, to which he contributed \$50,000, and he was the founder of St John's school in Manlius. For many years he ranked among the most eminent lawyers of the country. In the Vanderbilt will case his fee was \$50,000.

Jan. 30, at Mooers, HENRY BOARDMAN TAYLOR, founder of Fort Edward institute. He was born at South Hero, Vt., March 8, 1822, was educated at the Troy Conference academy, and after preaching some years became, in 1849, its financial agent. He relieved it from debt, as he did again in 1852. In 1853 he laid the plans for Fort Edward institute, and induced Joseph E. King to unite with him in forming a stock company. He had entire supervision of the building, and remained as financial agent until 1858. In 1859 he became interested in Lewiston seminary, Ill., which proved a financial failure. In 1862 he fell and permanently injured his spine, making it impossible for him any longer to teach or preach. He returned to Mooers and became a pension agent, and for years trustee of the village school. Among his children are Prin. Henry L. Taylor, Ph. D., of the Canandaigua union school, and Abbie E. Taylor, preceptress of the Walden union school.



# GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS

ADDRESS BY REGENT CHARLES E. FITCH

We meet, this evening, to pay respect to the memory of two of our distinguished dead, but as there are days in June which seem to enfold themselves in the splendor and to exhale the perfume of all the summer time, so this is an occasion that revives the sentiments and quickens the emotions of other occasions of kindred import, the one including and interpreting the rest. Its peculiar sadness is invested with comprehensive significance. Membership in this board is the constant monition of our common mortality. Of those who participated in its councils, 20 years ago, not one survives. Frequent have been our memorial services, and one voice especially has declared our frequent sorrow. It was a voice of surpassing richness and exquisite melody. No dissonance disturbed its harmony; no false inflection debased its golden cadence. In tone, in compass, in expression, it was music's self; and nowhere did it vibrate to a more rhythmic chord, nor thrill to a tenderer strain than here, where attuned by affection, sensitive to their virtues, tolerant of their infirmities and mindful of their labors, it sang the requiem for our departed ones. And that voice has ceased. There is a void we can not fill.

When some beloved voice, that was to you  
Both sound and sweetness, faileth suddenly,  
And silence against which you dare not cry,  
Aches round you like a strong disease and new—  
What hope? What help? What music will undo  
That silence to your sense?

Reverently and modestly, I trust, do I break that silence, at your behest, for I know that my speech is inadequate to his desert. Speech, however, is made the easier for me, if

I but echo that of others. I can simply join in the accordant tribute to his excellence by his fellow-journalists, by his companions in the guild of letters, by his co-workers in the causes of education and reform, all testifying to the light and beauty and fragrance, the strength and sincerity and symmetry of his life. That life is singularly open to the review, as it was singularly free and limpid in its flow. It sought no hidden recesses, nor tortuous ways. Its current was as full and forceful, as it was sparkling and fascinating. I know no life which was more transparent. The purer the spring, the less subtle is its analysis. It was not that this life was without its reserves, its reticencies and its dignities, but its purpose and its tenor are luminous in the revelation. Critics may vary in their estimates of the literary genius of George William Curtis — its quality and its permanence — and scribes may question the wisdom of some of his political judgments, but none who knew him will differ as to the integrity of his motives, his fidelity to his convictions, or the chivalry, compact of courtesy and courage, with which he upheld them. His manhood is serene against assault. Take from him his winning personality, the amenities that emanated from him, the refinements he cultivated, the associations and endearments that threw an ideal charm about his career, and there remains an inherent manhood, consistent in its growth, developing noble and yet nobler proportions, until, in its rounded completeness, it stands as one of the comeliest and most commanding figures of its epoch. With that manhood as our central thought, let us note something of the processes of its evolution.

George William Curtis was born in Providence, R. I., February 24, 1824. Not less favored was he, from the first, by innate grace than by outward fortune. He was of the best Puritan lineage: his father was a prosperous merchant; his home was the abode of comfort and happiness. He had precious gifts of form, of feature, of taste, of feeling, of aspiration. His heart was responsive to the attractions of art

and nature, and the honey of Hymettus was on his lips. In the exuberance of youth, he seemed exotic to the New England air, but the roots of his being were planted deeply in and clung tenaciously to its rugged soil. If the efflorescence was of Italian skies or breathed the odors of the orient, the trunk was of sturdy native growth, and the ripened fruitage was sound to the core. He was of Massachusetts stock, but he was born on the ground where Roger Williams, fleeing from the persecution of the Massachusetts theocracy, found refuge in the primeval forest, made its umbrageous aisles vocal with his hymns of praise, and there builded a commonwealth, whose corner-stone was the principle of the absolute separation of church and state. Upon all this broad continent, there is no spot more hallowed than that thus selected and dedicated. From none has proceeded a more genuine American inspiration — not from Concord bridge

Where once the embattled farmers stood,  
And fired the shot heard round the world,

nor from Independence Hall where, in exultant peal, freedom hailed the advent of the republic, nor from Gettysburg, where the confederacy was shattered and Lincoln spoke. And this was the inspiration of the ingenuous boy, who sported by Seekonk cove or mused by the walls of Hope college, 60 years ago — an inspiration, which, if for a time inert, survived the allurements of travel, the brief intoxication of social success, and the bland temptations of a generous culture, restrained the debonair youth from dilettanteism, and resolved the litterateur into the patriot, so that, at the last, he might say, with Lowell,

I sank too deep in the soft-stuffed repose,  
That hears but rumors of earth's wrongs and woes:  
Too well these Capuas could my muscles waste,  
Not void of toils, but toils of choice and taste.  
These still had kept me could I but have quelled  
The Puritan drop that in my veins rebelled.

Curtis was not what is known as a college-bred man, but his education, pursued in a unique community of thinkers and theorists, and supplemented by a course of study in a German university, was certainly more than equivalent to that which he could have obtained from the narrow curriculum of any American college of the day. His later affiliations with college men were close. Brown university enrolled him among her alumni. Several of the leading institutions of the higher learning conferred their honorary degrees upon him, and he was the favorite orator at college festivals. By aptitude and equipment, he belonged to the sodality of American scholars with which this body, in its representative capacity, is incorporate, and to the headship of which he came as naturally, as properly. His early schooling, glimpses of which are disclosed in his novel of *Trumps*, was at Jamaica Plain, near Boston, and then, after a year under a private tutor and another in a mercantile house, in New York, whither his parents had removed, he became, at the age of 16, a pupil at Brook Farm.

Brook Farm, an idyl set in the prose of American life, almost a dim and fading legend now, was a brave, if vain attempt to better the social and to exalt the intellectual order. It tried to combine philosophy and the plow, poetry and the wash-tub. It was an enthusiasm, and it was "a dreamer of dreams;" but its enthusiasm was for the progress of the race, and its dreams were ecstasies of hope for the amelioration of human ills. It was communal without being tainted with passion; it made work honorable; and even its drudgery was conformed to the precept of quaint George Herbert,

Who sweeps a room, as for thy laws,  
Makes that and th' action fine.

Withal, Brook Farm had an admirable teaching force, directed by George Ripley, afterward the eminent literary editor of the New York *Tribune*, and a liberal course of study. There Curtis also heard the brilliant talk of Marga-



ret Fuller and the weird conceits of Nathaniel Hawthorne, and thither came, as frequent visitors, Theodore Parker, then in the first years of his aggressive ministry, the sage of Concord bringing pearls of thought, and the gentle hermit of Walden pond unfolding the secrets of the woods and fields. With "the plain living and high thinking" of the transcendentalists, Curtis received his second inspiration.

At the age of 22 he started on a memorable pilgrimage, entering the old world by the gateway of the Mediterranean, landing at Marseilles, and, from there, roaming in leisurely fashion, for four years, through Europe and the East, his tour being interrupted only by a short period of study in Berlin. This tour, over the incidents of which I wish I might linger, was a delightful experience for Curtis, as it has been a rare source of delight to his readers, as drawn upon for the reveries of the *Howadji* and the reminiscences of the *Easy Chair*. With ample store of classic, historic and romantic lore, with the taste of the artist and the soul of the poet, with ruddy health and cheerful spirits, his enjoyment was as keen as his personality was attractive, reminding us of that other Puritan youth, John Milton, who, two centuries before, had gone from the scholarly seclusion of his English home, to feel the rapture of Italian verse and view the marvels of Italian art. Everywhere, the eyes of Curtis caught the local coloring, and, from the galleries of Dresden, the Louvre and the Vatican, from

Storied windows richly dight,  
Casting a dim religious light,

from the majesty of Memnon and the mute mystery of the Sphinx, from the stormy chorus of the students in the battle-summer of '48, from the typical tragedy of the Palazzo Sangrigo, portrayed in the *Shrouded Portrait*, and, from things new and old, grave and gay, his plastic mind received impressions that were reproduced in his works, in engaging form and with perfect finish. He was an accomplished traveler, ranking as such with Irving and Kinglake. He had con-

genial companions in his wanderings — Kensett and Hicks, Hedge and Cranch and Tiffany — who were to acquire reputations in their respective walks, and he made acquaintance with the Brownings, Thackeray, and other celebrated authors, who, in turn, confessed their liking for the bright and genial young American, even then remarkable for his conversational talent. In 1850, he left Europe, which he never revisited, although two presidents, at least, tendered him high diplomatic appointments; and, perhaps, as Edward Cary says, this “is not to be regretted, since the Europe that gleams through 40 years of the *Easy Chair* is the Europe of that day, smiling, romantic with a touch of adventure and a charm that is as completely vanished as the packet ship that bore the unhurried traveler to its shores.”

Curtis returned to New York to make literature his profession, his first regular employment in journalism being on the New York *Tribune*, to which he had already written letters from abroad. The *Tribune* had then been established about nine years, had become a vital political force, and was vying with the *Evening Post* in literary skill. Its staff was a notable one, embracing several of Curtis's old friends of the Brook Farm community. Charles A. Dana was the managing editor; George Ripley was the book reviewer; Margaret Fuller was a welcome contributor; Bayard Taylor was alternately an editorial writer and a correspondent from “far Cathay;” and, over all, was Horace Greeley, the most original, the most intrepid, and the most masterful of American editors. Curtis was the musical and dramatic critic — for his pen as yet, ran mainly along esthetic lines — and he drew those pleasing sketches of the watering places that were subsequently collected in book form as *Lotus Eating*. He also supplied airy fancies for the *Knickerbocker* — a mélange of wit and wisdom giving foretaste of the royal feasts of *Harper's* and the *Century*.

In 1851, *Nile Notes* appeared and was soon succeeded by the *Howadji in Syria*. The one has certain verbal redundancies and affectations, cloying upon our matured taste,

from which the other is measurably free, but each is fine in temper, delicate in sentiment, elegant in scholarship and limns with photographic accuracy the picturesque languor of the ancient lands. Curtis, at the first, was enticed and bewildered by the opulence of his vocabulary, but he speedily recovered his poise, eliminated impurities from his style and wrought it into a diction as chaste as it is agreeable. "Poetry," says Coleridge, "is the best words in the best order:" and such is the prose poetry of George William Curtis. In 1853, *Putnam's*, the second of American magazines of the newer era, *Harper's* having preceded it by three years, was started, and Curtis was enlisted in its service. Intellectually, it was a credit to periodical literature. Financially, it was unfortunate, and when a crisis in its affairs was reached, in 1857, Curtis was a special business partner. His private fortune was swept away, and, in addition, there were obligations, which he voluntarily assumed, to whose discharge he devoted years of unremitting effort, applying thereto nearly all the receipts from his lyceum lectures. When he stepped from the platform, in 1873, the burden had been lifted, and he was a free man. He never, I believe, ascended it again for pay. This is an interesting episode in his career, the vindication of an acute sense of honor, and finds its counterpart only in the herculean task of Sir Walter Scott in his settlement with the creditors of Ballantyne and Co. To *Putnam's*, Curtis gave some of his choicest work, including *Homes of American Authors*, the *Potiphar Papers*, and *Prue and I*. The "homes" are those of Emerson, Longfellow, Bancroft and Hawthorne, in all of which he was a familiar guest. The *Potiphar Papers* is a keen inspection of the frivolities and pretensions of "our best society." Too truthful for irony, it is too kindly for contumely. It is the philosopher in dress coat, who has the entrée of the circle, quizzing its foibles, and not the cynic in hair cloth, railing at its exclusiveness from the area. It is cleverly written and furnishes, in that of "the Rev. Cream Cheese," at least one

to the noted names in fiction. *Prue and I* is as lovely a bit of sentiment and lambent humor as there is in the language. Is the recent encomium of Laurence Hutton excessive? He says: "It is Addison with a warmth and humanness that Addison never knew. It is Lamb, with a grace and delicacy that Lamb's time did not bequeath to him. It is Sidney, with the lightest modern touch, and a new learned simplicity. It is the sweetest, gentlest, serenest, loftiest, most cultured of scholars, who, in the homely guise of this modest clerk, enchants the reader with his airy fancy and rich imagination."

In October 1853, Curtis first wrote for the *Easy Chair*, and from April 1854 it bore the sole stamp of his individuality. In 1863 he was installed as editor of *Harper's Weekly*, and, in these connections, he remained until his death. He was also the "Lounger" of the *Weekly* and made "Manners upon the road," for the *Bazar*, but upon the first two he expended his main force, and upon the conduct of these departments his reputation largely rests. How dissimilar and yet how similar they are. Both are grounded in principle, both are conformed to exalted ideals, both are drawn from the "well of English undefiled;" but the one is simple, concise, unembellished; the other is buoyant and supple, and upon it jewels glitter. The one is robust, the other polished. The one contends in the dust, of the arena; the other rambles in the forest of Arden or meditates in the groves of Academus. The advocate is in the one, the scholar is in the other, and the gentleman is in both. Curtis's weekly articles, models of a perspicuous style, were able, candid and dispassionate in their treatment of public questions, were widely quoted, and were cogent in their influence upon public opinion, more cogent than the utterances of any other American editor, with the exception of Greeley. The *Easy Chair* is one of the fairest products of modern literature, and, in saying this, I believe I am not betrayed by the partiality of my love, for I am sure it will stand the severest critical tests. How pure,

how fresh, how exhilarating it is! To how many hearts has it appealed as "guide, philosopher and friend!" How varied its themes, how catholic its vision, how radiant its spirit! It is the consummate flower of expression. I am firm in the faith that the *Easy Chair* will be a classic, grouped with the *Spectator* which, in the gentleness that informs it, it so much resembles, although, as I think, it is superior to the *Spectator* in rhetorical art. Well does the magazine leave vacant the place it occupied so long. To this king there can be no successor.

Curtis had a voice, as well as a pen. Its opportunity was in the golden age of the lyceum: its superb announcement was in the crucial period of American nationality. Of the lyceum, in whose galaxy shone such lights as Starr King, Henry Ward Beecher, Bayard Taylor, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Edwin H. Chapin, Alonzo Potter, John B. Gough and Wendell Phillips, Curtis soon became "a bright, particular star." Judging by the frequency of his appearance, he was the most popular of the peripatetic host, particularly so with cultivated audiences. In the flush of his early manhood, his presence was especially attractive. His subjects, at the beginning were of an esthetic or social cast. His first lecture, in 1851, was on "Contemporary art in Europe." The Howadji had taken to the platform. Another was on "Gold and Glitter in America," a reflection from the *Potiphar Papers*. There was another, that on "Sir Philip Sidney," which still rings like a melodious measure in many memories, and which also to many seems as introspective as descriptive, obeying in its composition the injunction of Sidney's muse, "Look in thy heart and write;" for who can doubt that Curtis was as knightly a soul as Sidney, and that, even in his extremity, he would have passed the cup to one whose need he thought was greater than his own? As an illustration of the hold that this prose threnody had on public esteem, it may be mentioned that, so late as last March, Curtis was asked to deliver it in

Tacoma, the invitation coming from a man who remembered it as a boy.

But soon his themes were more significant of the time, and his discourse ran in deeper and broader channels. The gravest issues of national honor and human freedom were at stake. The conscience of the north, so long dormant, had become active. Thought was elastic and speech was earnest. The Puritan spark in Curtis was fanned into flame, and glowed and blazed and burned within him. The inspiration asserted itself. He could not be insensible to the obligations of educated men to the state; thereafter he constantly insisted upon their sanctity, and none of his addresses were more fervent, more eloquent or more hopeful than when he elaborated this theme, as at Brown, Union and Lehigh. At the first, he identified himself with the abolitionists, from whom, if he had been observant only of social distinctions, he would have been repelled. Let me not be misapprehended in what I say of the social status of the abolitionists. Some were fit to grace the salons of Versailles, or to sit in the chairs of the Sorbonne. A movement which numbered among its adherents such an erudite scholar as Charles Follen, such a merchant prince as Arthur Tappan and such a finished Christian gentleman as Gerrit Smith could not be destitute of refining elements; but it also comprehended a rougher element — men with more of ardor than urbanity, of zeal than learning, of muscle than manners. Aggression was the essence of abolitionism; agitation was its agency; but it was educating a nation. For it Whittier was singing, Phillips was forging his thunderbolts, Lowell was applying the caustic of his wit to the hideous sore in the body politic, and Curtis was stirred to the impulse of speech, as the Puritan Samuel Adams was so stirred to declare, from the commencement stage at Harvard, that resistance to the crown is lawful if the commonwealth cannot otherwise be preserved, and as the Cavalier Richard Henry Lee was so stirred to proclaim from the floor of the continental congress, that the colonies would

trust to the sword against the edicts of the king ; and thus yielding to his impulse, Curtis became, as another has said, our Puritan Cavalier.

He acted for a time with the abolitionists, but he soon saw that the ultimate object of the new republican party was the extinction of slavery, to be accomplished by constitutional means, and he joined that organization, marching in the vanguard of its column, with Sumner and Wilson, with Wade and Giddings. He took the stump for Fremont, and made many speeches in the memorable initial campaign for republicanism, and by 1860, he had become a recognized republican leader, without, however, seeking or desiring political preferment, although he once accepted a nomination for congress in a district hopelessly democratic. He did not hesitate to identify himself with practical party management. "Honestus" did not shrink from the caucus, and the caucus honored "Honestus." For 25 years he was chairman of the republican committee of his county, was frequently a delegate to state conventions, several times the chairman thereof, and from 1860 to 1884, was a delegate to nearly every national convention of his party.

Meanwhile, his lyceum themes were pertinent to the hour, and his speech grew bolder, taking form and substance from the troublous times in which it was cast. In 1856, it was on "The duty of American scholars to politics and the times." In 1857, it was on "Patriotism." In that year also, it was on "Fair play for Women," the forerunner of his magnificent plea for female suffrage in the New York constitutional convention of 1867 which, for breadth of historical reference, weight of reasoning, and felicity of diction, is unsurpassed among the many persuasive arguments in behalf of that reform, not excepting that of Wendell Phillips at Worcester in 1851. In 1858, his speech was on "Democracy and Education." In 1859, it was on the "Present aspect of the slavery question," and this was delivered in "the city of brotherly love," amid the tumult of the mob and at imminent peril of personal violence ; but it *was* de-



livered. With truth on his side this courtly gentleman did not quail before the howling of the rabble.

When the war was on — when the tremendous issues of national integrity and national dissolution, of human rights and human bondage, were transferred from the forum of debate to the arbitrament of the sword,—the speech of Curtis had a sterner earnestness and a clearer ring. It even thrilled with the pathos of his own affliction, for his brother, a gallant Union soldier, fell at Fredericksburg, and two of his kinsmen by marriage, “curled darlings of Harvard,” but paladins of truth, had glorious death at the serried front, one of whom still has apotheosis for the supreme beauty of his sacrifice. Curtis talked of “National Honor” of the “Good Fight” and, as the climax of his war themes, of the “Way of Peace”—of peace with honor, and as embracing the fullest guarantees of freedom. From the lyceum, his speech broadened into other fields. He was heard at patriotic anniversaries and centennials, at college commencements, at memorial services, at ceremonial banquets, at political conventions, wherever important occasion invoked the fitting word. And he was generous with his transcendent gift, freely responding to demands upon him, until the pressure of professional duties, and the repose necessary to advancing years, made it incumbent upon him to limit somewhat its use.

There is no body of American speeches extant which, for apposite exposition of subject, for wealth of allusions — the side lights that are sometimes brighter than the central lamp — for symmetry of metaphor and relevance of simile and illustration, for expression grammatically, as well as rhetorically, correct, for method and manner, for all the requisites that combine in genuine eloquence, excels that which George William Curtis produced. “He touched nothing that he did not adorn.” There are few events that, through his description, are not invested with a larger meaning than they had before acquired, and there are few men who, as depicted by him, do not tower in loftier stature and are not endowed with nobler disposition and more capa-

cious faculties than had previously been accorded to them. Through him, Bryant draws closer to the heart of nature, and rises in the dignity of his unselfish citizenship. Through him, the Scottish heather blooms afresh and Scottish streams go more gladly gurgling to the sea, while he who sings of them, of "Highland Mary," and "A man's a man for a' that," becomes a bard more dear and a man more lovely, despite his piteous faults. Through him, Phillips is cast in more heroic mould, as he waits for the client who comes in the guise of the bruised and beaten serf, and brooks the ostracism of caste to become the apostle of humanity. Through him, the surrender of Burgoyne has nearer relation to that of Cornwallis, and, through him, as the barge bears the last soldier of Great Britain from the soil of New York, its oars dip to a livelier refrain of joy from the receding shore. Through him, the Pilgrim, whether he dedicates his statue in Central park or glorifies him at a New England dinner, leads the march of civilization down the centuries and across the continent — its herald and its genius. Through him, as he stands upon the spot where the first president of the republic took the oath of office, even the figure of Washington assumes a front more majestic and proportions more colossal than before. To Curtis, more than to any one else, is due the re-creation of George Washington, as the nation he founded, and without whom it could not have been, enters upon the second century of its constitutional existence.

And it must be regarded as a happy circumstance that, on the anniversary of the birth of Washington, preceding his own death, Curtis should have been permitted to make his last memorial address upon a great American, himself born on the 22d of February, who, like Curtis, was of the literati and the illuminati of the land, who, like him, united shining talents with sterling virtues, who, like him, guarded an intelligent patriotism with a sturdy independence, and who, like him, made his art tributary to freedom, to democracy, and to reform. Kindred tastes, pursuits and

culture had cemented between the two a friendship true and tender and tenacious, and Curtis never did finer work than when he wove the chaplet of amaranth and laurel for the brow of James Russell Lowell. This was the last time that his voice was heard upon a theme of any moment, except in an address which he delivered before the National civil service reform league, of which he was, for many years, the president, and to the advancement of whose objects he was long and consistently devoted. On this occasion, he was the recipient of a hearty ovation from the friends of that reform, and he eminently deserved it, as the most conspicuous and unflinching champion of a change in the distribution and tenure of official place, some of the features of which, if adopted, would certainly conserve the efficiency of the public service and relieve it from the evils of the spoils system.

I am not here to adjust the relative position that George William Curtis will hold among the orators of his generation. This would be elusive and impossible, for the standards of oratory are as varying as there are varying audiences and varying moods of audiences to determine them. I have, however, no doubt that his oratory will rank very high, as tried by the rules of the books, as well as by the acclaim of those to whom it was immediately addressed; and as for myself, I frankly say that it was the perfection of rhetorical and elocutionary art. It entranced me as a boy in the old lyceum; the spell did not depart in the many, many hours of rapturous listening in my mature years; and I felt its persuasion still, in the deliberations of this body, and never more than at the last. Ah! how little knew we it was the last. Curtis was a great orator—one of the greatest orators. Less artificial than Everett, he was his equal in affluence of vocabulary. Less vehement than Beecher, he was his superior in nicety of construction. Less scholastic than Sumner, he was his peer in earnestness and excelled him in the orderly sequence of his thought. Less ornate and sonorous and even less magnetic than was

Conkling, in some of his periods, he was of more uniform excellence, and never descended to the lower levels. He had Seward's command of classic English, but he set therein more of the gems of speech, corruscating as from a coronal.

But why indulge in comparisons? Better than the speech of Curtis was the motive that prompted it. Speech, however sound or brilliant, receives its chiefest strength and luster from the man behind it, and this the speech of Curtis had, in a character unsullied, and in a manhood regnant over the seductions of the senses and the temptations to moral obliquities. He may have made mistakes, but he never consciously deflected from the right, nor contracted his ideals. He was honest in every throb of his heart and every fiber of his being, and we say this, unhesitatingly, who have most cause for grief over his later political course — we who had trusted him, had accepted his creed, had sustained his policies ;

We that had loved him so, followed him, honored him,  
Lived in his mild and magnificent eye,  
Learned his great language, caught his clear accents,  
Made him our pattern to live and to die!

We say that our lost leader did not wantonly desert us, that not

Just for a handful of silver he left us,  
Just for a ribbon to stick in his coat.

No mean nor sordid motive, no self-seeking actuated him. The issue was a painful one to him, as it was to us, between what appeared an inexorable duty and the ties of dear and old association. He referred the case for decision to the court of conscience, and from that august tribunal there was no appeal. With him, we accepted the decision, not traversing its authority, although keenly regretting its adverse consequences. The suggestion has been made that his course was dictated by the revenge of his employers, based on the loss of pecuniary profits. It is a suggestion as cruel in intent as false in fact. I know, as others know, how

honorable were the relations of Curtis and the firm which, for 40 years, were his publishers. That firm never asked of him any thing which, if granted, would have militated against his self-respect. He was free to support or to oppose men and measures, as every editor worthy of the name should be. The counting room of the Harpers never assumed control of the sanctum. Curtis has more than once told me of the independent position he occupied, not less from their desire than from his own conception of editorial functions. Sometimes it occurred that, after an issue was ended, they said to him that they had not quite agreed with his views, but that he was master of the situation, and they would never think of interfering with his conduct of the paper; and it were an impertinence to intimate that a man of Curtis's sense of the proprieties and self-respect would have remained for a moment in the service of those who claimed to prescribe or regulate his utterances. As editor, his was the sole and unchallenged responsibility.

When all has been said that can be said of the literary and oratorical eminence of George William Curtis, it is, after all, his character that rises superior even to this, and constrains the fullest measure of our admiration. It is true, indeed, that

Spirits are not finely touched,  
But to fine issues,

and that his time did much to educate and to invigorate him; but, at any time and under any circumstances, his character would have been of the finest grain, and those who knew him well knew how fine it was, in its private not less than its public manifestation. He held his honor as "the apple of his eye." He kept his plighted word. He was scrupulous in fulfilling his obligations. He was affable without affectation, and delicately considerate of the feelings of others. No one was ever oppressed by his condescension, nor felt the sting of his unjust rebuke. He was never petulant under provocation, and never lost a becoming deportment. He did not carry his heart upon his sleeve, nor

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bestow his confidences promiscuously, but his trust was given where it was deserved, and his friends were attached to him as by "hooks of steel." His home was the abode of a sweet domesticity. His religion was in doing, rather than in professing, in righteous practice, than the repetition of creeds.

His charity was like the snow,  
Soft, white and silent in its fall;  
Not like the noisy winds that blow  
From shivering trees the leaves— a pall  
For flower and weed,  
Dropping below.

No one in the spirit that imbued him and the courtesies he illustrated better deserved "the grand old name of gentleman."

In the ripeness of his years and the fullness of his fame, he was made chancellor of the University of the State of New York. It was the fitting crown of his lettered life and it was an office which he accepted, at your hands, modestly, yet gratefully, with a sincere appreciation of its dignity and intimate knowledge of its requirements. When he was elected, he was the senior regent, having been commissioned in 1864. He sat in the chair of Jay and Verplanck and Kent—an illustrious succession—and had acted four years as vice-chancellor. He had always taken a lively interest in the work of the board, faithfully attending its annual meetings and punctually performing the committee duty assigned him. He was for many years a member of the standing committee on the library, and I clearly recall the zeal and industry he displayed, and the wise and valuable counsel he offered, while serving on the special committee of which the late Hon. Robert S. Hale was chairman, to devise plans for promoting the growth and extending the usefulness of the state library—plans which since matured and amplified, largely under his direction, have unquestionably placed the New York library, in its accumulations, its management and its popularity, at the head of all state institutions of a similar kind. When he

came to the chancellorship, it was with the qualifications of the scholar, profound sympathy with the objects of the board and enlarged ideas of the relations of government to education. He believed that the welfare, not less than the safety, of the state was involved therein, and that while the common school made ample provision for the one, this institution with its congeries of colleges and universities, was the proper custodian of the other. Therefore, he favored all measures which gave it larger powers and he held that an imperial commonwealth, like New York, should grant its largess to the cause of higher learning. The enactments which increased the efficiency of the board by conferring upon it additional responsibilities and those which defined the purpose of and appropriated means for carrying on the democratic scheme of university extension, had alike his earnest support and his vigorous administration. The stately oration, at the centennial of the university, in 1884, is the expression of conservative respect and of poetic sentiment for an institution which, designed by Hamilton and L'Hommedieu, has resisted radical modifications of its original structure, has retained the life tenure of its members as against the sweeping change which has even revolutionized the judiciary, and which in our new American life suggests something of the reverence which broods over the Isis and the Cam. The address at the Convocation in 1890, is a luminous presentation of the objects and jurisdiction of the University, and of the progress it has made, especially in late years, and removes much of the misapprehension that had existed in the popular mind concerning it, showing that it is not effete because it is venerable, and that it has been an active agent in making New York first in education, as she has long been first in trade, in commerce and in population, among the sisterhood of American states. From the time that Curtis took office, in January, 1890, his devotion to his work and his faith in the future of the university grew constantly. He gave to its development much of his thought and personal attention.



He was in touch with all that the higher education still demands. Kindly in his relations with the subordinates in the office, they felt his loss as that of a personal friend. And to the members of the board, how considerate, how courteous, how unassuming he was, so ready to defer his judgment to that of others, so just, and yet so amiable. In that long roll of chancellors, which stalwart George Clinton heads, and which includes the names of Jay and Tompkins and Pruyn, none were worthier of the place than was George William Curtis, as none had more discriminating perception of its importance, nor in it did nobler service than he, during the brief period he was permitted to grace it.

When one, who has been esteemed great in art, or letters, or statesmanship, dies, speculation busies itself as to the durability of his fame. Will he be forgotten, or will his be

One of the few, the immortal names  
That were not born to die?

And the door of the future closes the eager quest. How short will be the catalogue of those who have enduring recognition, although none may gainsay the tremendous propulsions of the race. Where are the speeches that have been made, the songs that have been sung, the books that have been written? There are echoless voids, and they are "to dumb forgetfulness a prey;" and unmindful of them, though may be inspired by them, the mighty processions sweep onward to decay:

And the individual withers, and the world is more and more.

Nothing can be more misleading than contemporary verdict upon literary productions. One age rejects what a preceding age cherishes, and one rescues from neglect that which the other contemns. Shakespeare and Milton had new birth and the dust of the dark ages was thick upon Horace and Virgil. The lesser dramatists of the Elizabethan era expected to live and the wits of Grub street thought to destroy Pope. The martyrs of to-day are the

heroes of to-morrow. I expect that George William Curtis will live in the lines he has written, that the *Easy Chair* will be a delight to the coming generations, that *Prue and I* will be perused at the firesides of the newer time, and that some of his addresses will be read hereafter with the zest with which we read those of Sheridan and Burke, of Henry and Webster; but I know that he will be immortal in the principles he advocated, in the reforms he advanced, in the work he did for education and humanity, in his gentle life, an example to follow, incarnate virtue to emulate. He lives and will live.

He is a portion of the loveliness  
Which once he made more lovely: he doth bear  
His part, while the one spirit's plastic stress  
Sweeps through the dull dense world, compelling there  
All new successions to the forms they wear.

## FRANCIS KERNAN

ADDRESS BY REGENT WILLIAM H. WATSON

Within a very short period this board has been called to mourn the death of two of its most respected and illustrious members.

The portals of the grave had scarcely closed upon one of the most eminent literary men of our age—the lamented and gifted chancellor of the University—ere they again opened to receive another of our associates, distinguished alike in the forum and at the bar, a leader in one of the great political parties of our country, beloved wherever he was known, a man of national reputation, both as a statesman and a lawyer, who had filled with preeminent ability the most elevated positions in professional and civic life.

Francis Kernan, a name known throughout the length and breadth of our country, after 52 years' service at the bar, in the early autumn of the year, as of his life, passed to his eternal rest. The white snows of winter, not more pure than his character and fame, now cover his mortal remains, but to his colleagues in this board, his memory has the fresh verdure of perennial spring.

Regent Kernan was the eldest son of General William Kernan, who emigrated to this country from Ireland about 1803. His companion on the voyage to the New World was the father of Charles O'Connor. William Kernan landed in New York where he remained about two years and then removed to Steuben county in this state, to that part of it now included in Schuyler county, and purchased a tract of wild land in the present town of Tyrone. He soon afterward married Rose Stubbs, also a native of Ireland, who came to this country with her parents in 1808 and settled near the location of General Kernan's farm.

*Delivered at the Regents' memorial meeting held in the senate chamber, Albany, Dec. 14, 1892.*

There, amid the picturesque, rural scenery of western New York, so wonderfully diversified by wild mountain, placid lake and deep resounding glen, Francis Kernan first drew the breath of life on January 14, 1816, and there imbibed that freedom of thought, that dignity of character and intellectual health which left so indelible a mark upon his public career in after life. A son of one of its honored pioneers he early learned those habits of self-denial and honest labor, which, while they invigorate the body, quicken the faculties of the mind and build up manly character.

Young Kernan remained at home until his 17th year and attended the neighboring district school whenever he could be spared from the duties of the farm. In 1833 he went to Georgetown college, in the District of Columbia, an excellent educational institution, for which he ever after retained the warmest affection. That he was an earnest and faithful student during his collegiate course, the speaker possesses most convincing proof, in the readiness, aptness, and felicity with which he has often heard him quote from both Virgil and Horace.

To Regent Kernan himself, as we shall hereafter see, may be fitly applied those beautiful lines from his favorite poet, in which, so forcibly inculcating the dignity of virtue and describing the only enduring civil merit, he utters the lofty sentiment that through all the ages has been and must forever be true, that the man of real worth is independent of popular favor, and that his happiness does not rest upon the capricious breath of popular applause,

"Virtus, repulsæ nescia sordidæ,  
Intaminatis fulget honoribus,  
Nec sumit aut ponit secures  
Arbitrio popularis auræ."

In the fall of 1836, Mr Kernan commenced the study of his profession in the office of his brother-in-law, Edward Quin, in Watkins, at the head of Seneca lake.

In 1839 he came to Utica and finished his legal studies in the office of Hon. Joshua A. Spencer and was admitted to

practice in July, 1840. Mr Kernan was ambitious and desirous of trying his fortune in a wider field. After his admission to the bar he asked Mr Spencer for a letter of recommendation, saying that he proposed to go to some western state to locate. "Don't go west. Stay in Utica and be my partner," was the prompt response of his preceptor. Mr Kernan accepted the proposition and remained the partner of this distinguished advocate until 1853, and then took his brother-in-law, George E. Quin, into partnership. In 1857 William Kernan was admitted to partnership and the firm became Kernan, Quin and Kernan. Mr Quin died in 1863. The firm afterward became William and Nicholas E. Kernan. John D. Kernan was a member of the firm until he was appointed railroad commissioner on the organization of the board of state railroad commissioners.

Mr Kernan was appointed reporter of the court of appeals in 1854 and served until 1857. He was again tendered the position, but declined on account of the pressure of other professional duties. He received this appointment from Gov. Seymour, and during his term of service reported four volumes of the proceedings of the court.

In the fall of 1860, he was nominated to the state assembly by the democrats and elected from a district which had given a large republican majority the preceding year.

In the assembly he at once took high rank as a legislator. He threw himself into the ranks of the defenders of the Union and of the active prosecution of the war, by supporting the war measures of Gov. Morgan, and was appointed by the governor a member of the committee for raising volunteers in the Oneida congressional district. His duties required his active services, which he generously gave. His speeches during this period were extremely loyal and patriotic. In a word, he was a "war democrat."

In 1862 Mr Kernan was elected to congress. He here rendered important service as a member of the judiciary committee, and was also thoroughly in accord with the

national government in its efforts to maintain the integrity of the Union. His course was marked by so decided a spirit of justice and moderation that he was often consulted by President Lincoln on matters pertaining to the conduct of the war.

In a debate on the 13th of January, 1863, on the subject of confiscation he used the following language, which shows his attitude on this very important matter: "I submit that the punishment for treason, like the punishment for every other crime should fall upon the guilty party only, and that we should not seek to affect his innocent children and heirs. Take away from the guilty party his life estate, his right to dispose of it, but do not take away the right of inheritance from the innocent heirs, who will show themselves loyal, else they never will have the right to come into court and ask to be heard." This measure was passed in the house but killed in the senate as being unconstitutional. He was instrumental in having the *per capita* tax on emigrants declared unconstitutional, and killed the bill which proposed to restore the head money paid to ship-owners. He was a member of the house of representatives from March 4, 1863, to March 4, 1865.

He was a prominent member of the state constitutional convention, held in 1867-68. Here his legal abilities were displayed to advantage in the framing of many of the most important provisions of the new instrument, which will forever remain as monumental evidence of his thoughtful ability.

As a member of the constitutional convention in 1867, Mr Kernan made an able, earnest, elaborate and most emphatic speech, advocating an absolute prohibition of sectarian appropriations of the public money. It was in part as follows:

*"Sir, the provision under consideration, reported by the committee on finance, by which it is provided that the legislature shall not donate any moneys or property of the state to any person, association or corporation, is correct and just.*

According to the theory of our government, all sects and denominations of religion are to have equal rights, and there is to be no discrimination in favor of or against any. The members of one denomination are not to be taxed to support the religious, charitable or educational institutions of the other. This is as it should be. The provision reported by the committee on finance is based upon this principle, and will carry it into effect. *It cuts all those institutions off from the public treasury; it places them, as they should be, on an equal footing: it leaves them to be supported and sustained by the charitable contributions of the individuals and religious denominations which organize and control them. This is in accordance with the principles of our government, it is just to all.* It will prevent jealousy and sectarian bitterness, which are ever to be deplored, from springing up between the members of the different religious denominations on account of real or fancied inequality in the appropriations made to charitable institutions."

Later he was appointed by Gov. Hoffman to prepare amendments to the constitution to submit to the people for adoption. The report of the convention was presented to the legislature, and most of the amendments proposed were submitted to the people and ratified. One which Mr Kernan regarded as the most important was not, however, submitted to the people by the legislature. It related to the governing of cities, and was the result of much study and deliberation. It provided that in cities having a population of 20,000 and upwards, the tax payers and only the tax payers were to vote for a board of audit. The city could contract no debt without the approval of its board of audit, and no bills could be paid without its sanction. The board was to have no power to order work or expenditures itself, but was simply to approve or disapprove the action of those already in office. Without its approval no ordinance or resolution went into effect and no bill could be paid. The board was to have no patronage and no pay. One member was to be



elected and one to retire each year and the term of office was to be three years.

February 10, 1870. Mr Kernan was chosen a member of the board of regents. Of his faithful and efficient services here it is unnecessary for me to speak. They are known to all his colleagues. He attended its meetings with the greatest regularity as long as his health allowed and rendered cheerful and valuable services upon the most important committees.

In the convention of 1871 Mr Kernan took a prominent part in excluding from the convention those democrats who were tainted by suspicion or apologizing for the corrupt. He stood manfully for party purity and reform.

Democracy was with him synonymous with devotion to his country, and those who assumed the garb of democracy to carry out selfish and wrongful schemes, encountered his courageous and persistent opposition.

He gave the first enthusiastic and cordial support which Samuel J. Tilden received, to the movement in the democratic party against the Tweed ring, and was recognized as Tilden's ablest ally. Mr Tilden has given most emphatic testimony to Mr Kernan's efficient services in destroying the Tweed ring. Mr Tilden once said: "The discovery of frauds by certain city officials happened just as I was about to leave the city to spend a week in the country. On the eve of my departure I had the opportunity of cross-examining a gentleman who had the confidence of the financial men and the tax payers of this city, and who called on me with a letter from a distinguished philanthropist (Peter Cooper). I became satisfied that the revelations were substantially true. My week's reflections in the country resulted in a determination to attempt to carry out that system of measures in which I have ever since been engaged. But some cooperation was indispensable. *The first man I sought was Francis Kernan.* After much telegraphing I found him attending court in Albany. I went there to

meet him. It was the 4th day of August, 1871. He was about to leave for the seashore to attend a sick relative. I gave him the documents. I submitted to him my views as to what ought to be done, and arranged for a further conference. On that occasion he gave me assurances of his full and cordial cooperation, which I ever afterward received. *He was to me the one necessary man for a contest in the state convention.* His courage, his independence, his tact and eloquence in debate, his popularity and the weight of his character were all I needed. I next sought Charles O'Connor."

It is evident that without Mr Kernan's assistance, Mr Tilden could not have made the movement a success.

His position in 1871 made him the logical candidate for governor in 1872. In the following year, therefore, he was nominated for governor of the state of New York by the democrats and liberals at Syracuse. It was a disastrous year for the democrats. Horace Greeley was the candidate for the presidency and a large portion of the democratic party could not bring itself to vote for him. The state gave a republican majority of over 53,000, but the vote of Dix over Kernan was less than that of Grant over Greeley.

In 1875 the democrats had gained control of the legislature. A senator was to be chosen to succeed Reuben E. Fenton. Horatio Seymour and Francis Kernan were the most distinguished men of that party. Seymour declined to be considered a candidate and said that he thought the honor belonged to Francis Kernan. That was the practically unanimous sentiment of the democrats throughout the state, and in January, 1875, Mr Kernan was chosen by the democratic caucus for the position and subsequently elected. Roscoe Conkling was his colleague in the senate for the next six years.

Possessing strong convictions Mr Kernan took high grounds on all the important issues presented to the senate. He was the uncompromising advocate of honest money, and

in the debate on the Bland silver bill he took side with those opposed to its passage. Deprecating passion or prejudice in deciding on the measure, he declared that a 90-cent dollar and the fluctuating silver standard of the currency would stain the public honor of the nation, and while injuring all, would bear with greater weight upon the poor. He stated that he was in favor of gold and silver currency circulating together, but as long as silver was depreciated below gold it would drive the gold dollar from use. In his opinion, the practical effect of the passage of the bill would be to demonetize gold in case the silver did not rise to par. He had no faith, he said, that silver would rise to par with gold as soon as it should be remonetized. He was in favor of making a silver dollar worth more intrinsically.

On the resignation of Judge Thurman, Mr Kernan became a member of the famous electoral commission in the Hayes-Tilden case, but not until after the whole contest had been virtually decided by declaring the vote of South Carolina. When the question came up in the senate, to ratify the report of the electoral commission, Mr Kernan made a forcible speech against such action.

He said the senate should not affirm the decision made by the commission. "The decision is to the effect that there is no power in congress to obtain the truth and smite down fraud. I solemnly protest against it, and I do so from a higher motive than for the success of any man or any political party. I do not want it to go into the world without protest, that a false and fabricated certificate is to be counted, and I am deeply pained that such a principle should have been affirmed by a vote of eight to seven."

In July, 1876, Senator Kernan, at the St Louis convention, in an earnest, dignified and graceful speech nominated Samuel J. Tilden for the presidency and subsequently in the campaign of that year rendered important service.

In the convention of 1884, held at Chicago, Mr Kernan was not a delegate, but he was present and was one of the

most efficient advocates, outside of the convention, for the nomination of Grover Cleveland. In that year he also rendered valuable services to his party on the stump.

In 1888 his age forbade him to take active part in the contest. He addressed meetings in Utica and vicinity only.

In the last state campaign he was not strong enough to make speeches, but he gave an interview telling his reasons why the democratic candidate should be elected.

Mr Kernan was a manager of the New York state lunatic asylum at Utica for several years and resigned when chosen senator. He was elected a school commissioner in 1843 and served for 20 years. He was chosen as the representative of Georgetown college to the Roman catholic congress in Baltimore in 1889.

Mr Kernan won merited distinction at a bar, which, during the active portion of his professional life, was one of the most illustrious in the state. Among his competitors were: Hiram Denio as long as he remained an advocate at the bar who, subsequently wearing the spotless ermine of the upright judge with honor and renown, for 12 years occupied a seat upon the bench of the court of last resort, and whose "decisions are received as law throughout the continent of America and quoted with respect in Westminster hall;" Charles H. Doolittle, whose unremitting devotion to duty, untiring industry and keenly analytic intellect made him not only a successful advocate but an ornament to the bench; Ward Hunt, while an advocate at the bar, on account of the integrity of his character, his sound common sense and his dignified and courteous bearing, at once highly esteemed by his professional brethren and influential with the court, and who, later, as justice of the supreme court of the United States adorned the bench of the, perhaps, most distinguished legal tribunal in the world; Samuel Beardsley, that great lawyer and jurist, whose erect and stalwart form, so emblematical of his character, now rises before me with peculiar pleasure in all its rugged-

ness and dignity ; Roscoe Conkling, the advocate of matchless eloquence and exhaustless fertility of resource, against whom Mr Kernan, both at the bar and in the forum of the nation, as a leader of a great political party, was continually pitted in intellectual contests, which, however great their severity, never ruptured the warm personal friendship which existed between them (it is pleasant to relate that on the occasion of a public reception tendered to Senator Conkling on his return from Europe in 1877, Mr Kernan delivered the welcoming address); William J. Bacon, the upright judge and the scholarly and accomplished man of letters; Joshua A. Spencer, the perhaps unequalled jury advocate, of whom Roscoe Conkling said, " I can not express my indebtedness to him. Whatever success I may have had in life I owe in a great measure to Mr Spencer."

Such was the array of legal talent with which, during his professional life, Mr Kernan was called to cope, and it is the unanimous judgment of the bar, that amid this galaxy of illustrious men, he was always *par inter primos*,—equal among the greatest.

The speaker believes that it was Mr Kernan's highest ambition to excel in his profession, and to attain a thorough understanding and complete mastery of legal science. To this end, with singleness of purpose, he devoted the untiring industry and energy of his life.

As a lawyer Mr Kernan was cultivated, public spirited and conscientious. " The capacity for the display of great intellectual tact, ability and learning, in presenting and advocating the interest of the client, is largely based upon the hours of labor and study out of the court room." No one appreciated or carried out this idea more faithfully than he. He had in a preeminent degree the faculty of work, that patient application which is not only a mark of ability but also the surest pledge of success. He knew that no professional man could attain the rewards and enjoy the highest honors of his calling, except by earnest and patient toil,

profound thought and continual application to his studies and his duties. He had in large degree the power of concentration, and fixing his attention upon a subject he held it with an iron grasp until he had fully solved the problem under consideration.

Mr Kernan had a logical mind with unusual powers of statement and analysis, united with rare gifts of eloquence and persuasion. In marshaling the facts and ideas which were to furnish the solution of his case, and grouping them in orderly and legal relations, he was a consummate master.

In the examination of witnesses he displayed rare knowledge of human nature. Treating them kindly and courteously, he restrained the forward, he gently led the unwilling, encouraged the timid, and so involved the deceitful witness in a web of his own falsehoods that he compelled him to strengthen the very case which he had endeavored to defeat.

His language as well as his bearing toward the jury were such as to create the belief that he was absolutely honest and sincere.

He treated the court with uniform respect and seemed only desirous that it should comprehend his views and receive fitting impression from their statement, and the judges, reciprocating the regard which he showed for them, examined with care the cases which he cited, because they implicitly believed in him, on account of the candor and fairness with which he presented his points.

His kindness and cordiality toward the younger members of the profession were proverbial. Says one of the prominent members of the Oneida bar, "The younger men who came to him for advice and counsel always found him ready and willing to assist them, and those who chanced to be opposed to him in court remember with gratitude the kindly manner with which he treated them."

While a member of the senate Mr Kernan's course was marked by that spirit of liberality, conjoined with wise con-

servatism, which should ever be characteristic of the statesman. His evident determination to exert himself for the welfare of the whole country, as well as of the great state which he represented, as shown by the broadness and justice of his views, secured for him the respect of every section and of men of the most widely divergent political opinions.

Faithful in the discharge of every duty of his position, he was constant in his attendance upon the sessions of the senate, and as a member of the various committees he was thorough and painstaking in all matters referred to them.

His genial nature and urbanity of manner gained the good will of his colleagues, while his integrity, fidelity and eminent abilities secured their confidence and respect, and they willingly accorded to him great influence in their deliberations and actions.

Mr Kernan ranked among the most distinguished members of the senate, and the record that he made is one of which the state, which honored itself by placing him there, may well be proud.

From the beginning to the close of his public life Mr Kernan was a democrat and at an early age became prominent in the councils of that party. A democrat, he was, however, still a patriot, and when secession raised its hydra-head he at once became one of the staunchest supporters of the national government in its efforts to maintain the integrity of the Union.

Mr Kernan was a gentleman, but not the pseudo-gentleman of Chesterfield,—the counterfeit, built from without, inward. His gentlemanly character was built from within, outward. Of him it might be said with Polonius, "The apparel oft proclaims the man." As described in the words of another, "He never appeared to have taken pains with his clothes, but on all occasions, he looked as if it were perfectly natural that he should be dressed like a gentleman." Possessed of pure and elevated sentiments, his manners



were their natural outcome. The heart of man speaks from the tongue. Manners and bearing are always the results of habitual feelings. The man of base thoughts will betray the absence of nobility of soul, no matter what the polished schools in which he may have been educated. The proudest lineage will not insure the descendant of an hundred earls against coarseness and foulness of nature and their infallible outward manifestations.

Replete with humor and anecdote, he was scrupulously considerate of the feelings of others. Bright and cheerful of disposition, he was yet earnest and free from levity. To an unusual sweetness and uniformity of temper, which no disappointment could disturb and no injury could change, he added a rare grace and urbanity of manner, and charming felicity in social intercourse. These delightful amenities of character made him a most agreeable companion in all the circles in which he moved. While he was a good talker he was also a good listener, and had the happy faculty of putting all those with whom he conversed at ease with themselves. The wit and wisdom of his conversation gave added charms to the generous and unaffected hospitality of the home of one who may truly be said to have been a gentleman of the old school. He had an innate love of the candid, the manly and the real, and an instinctive dislike of the affected and the false. Detesting display and pretension he shrunk from notoriety. No respecter of wealth, rank, or station, he gave to the humblest applicant for his attention the same thoughtful consideration which he accorded to men of wealth and position.

Regent Kernan was a Christian. A plain, simple, devout and consistent Roman catholic, he knelt reverently at the altar of his church to receive the sacrament of her faith. He had no intolerance in his nature. Confident as to what he believed, while respecting the piety of all other good Christians, he never sacrificed a jot or tittle of his own.

In all his public relations Mr Kernan was free from the

least touch of sectarian bias. Throughout his public career he retained his fealty to his conscience and performed no act unworthy of his manhood, and at its close, came back to his fellow citizens, as he had gone from among them, with "clean hands and a pure heart" and quietly resumed the practice of his profession.

To great legal learning he added those accomplishments of mind and manner that gave him the same prominence in private life that he attained at the bar, on the rostrum and in the halls of congress.

As a statesman and a lawyer Mr Kernan stood in the front rank of his contemporaries. He was a democrat of the type of Thurman and Bayard of the present, and William L. Marcy and Silas Wright of an earlier generation, and, like his life-long friend Horatio Seymour, the model of a Christian gentleman. The fact that he was so often chosen as the presiding officer of the various conventions and commissions with which he was associated, emphatically proclaimed his ability for leadership.

The bench and the bar have given utterance to the statement that in forensic struggles he was ever an honorable opponent, and that when connected with him in professional relations they could rely upon his advice and assistance as an able, faithful and efficient advocate and friend.

In the rancor of partisan strife his religious views were ruthlessly assailed, but during his whole public life no breath of suspicion was ever cast upon the purity of his motives, the uprightness of his character or the integrity of his action, in the discharge of the high trusts confided to him. Few men have attracted as large a measure of public attention, and maintained for an equal period of time such a measure of professional and political distinction. An earnest partisan he yet retained the confidence and respect of friend and foe.

Few men have been as happy in the evening of their lives. At the last meeting of this board which he attended,

it seemed difficult to realize that he had passed his three score years and ten. Advancing years had shed the warm tints of autumn upon his life, and the frosts of many winters had not chilled his heart.

Estimated by the abilities he possessed, the honors he had achieved and the blamelessness of his life, at the time of his decease he was the first citizen of the community in which he lived.

Is it to be wondered at that from city, town, village and hamlet of this great state, there should have come up the voice of sorrow and regret at his decease?

In his death, New York lost one of her most eminent citizens, and the country one who has rendered it high and distinguished service.

He was one of a company of great and good men, illustrious in their generation, whose talents, character and labors were the strength and glory of the commonwealth in which they lived and are now embalmed among its choicest memories.

The fair, central city of the state in which he resided, has been rich in illustrious men. As I speak their forms arise to my view, their gathered presence seems to move before me again, a noble procession as I have often beheld them in by-gone years. Some of them have been previously mentioned in this address. In this splendid group and conspicuous by their character and talents, as well as by the lofty public positions they adorned, is a trio of men, whom it were difficult to match throughout the length and breadth of this imperial state — Kernan, Seymour and Conkling; all of whom, men of rare gifts and great intellectual attainments, have left deep impress, not only upon the community in which they lived but also upon the state whose highest, proudest commissions they ever bore unsullied by any unworthy act.

In closing this sketch of Regent Kernan may we not appropriately quote the words of Judge Story on another occasion:

“We dwell with pleasure upon the entirety of a life adorned by consistent principles, and filled up in the discharge of virtuous duty, where there is nothing to regret and nothing to conceal; no friendships broken; no confidence betrayed; no timid surrender to popular clamor; no eager reaches for popular favor.”

## APPENDIX

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### THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL

Address delivered on 25th anniversary of the founding of the Albany high school, Nov. 16, 1893

BY PRESIDENT SETH LOW, COLUMBIA COLLEGE

*Ladies and gentlemen, friends of the Albany high school:* Many circumstances combine to make it a pleasure to me to take part in your rejoicing to-day. First of all, as a citizen of the great commonwealth of New York, I rejoice in everything that makes for the happiness and the welfare of the people of the state. A good school is of interest to every citizen. Like an electric battery, its power is generated at one spot but its influence is felt near and far. There is, however, a more particular reason why I am glad to be here. The venerable college over which I have the honor to preside antedates by almost half a century the public school system of the state. The relations of the state of New York to the secondary and higher education have been shaped more powerfully by one of Columbia's distinguished graduates than by any other man. I refer, of course, to Alexander Hamilton. Another of our graduates, De Witt Clinton, as the founder of the first free primary school in New York city, was, in effect, the father of the public school system in the majestic city with which the college is identified. It will not surprise you, therefore, to be told that the president of Columbia college feels a double interest in your high school; first, because it is a part of the public school system of the state; and second, because the work of the school is so closely associated with the higher education. Columbia, again, like the Albany high school, is in a city of Dutch origin. Whatever else may be stated of the Dutch in their relation to this commonwealth, it can be confidently affirmed that they were loyal friends of popular education. Superintendent Draper has made it clear

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This address is appended to the convocation proceedings because it bears so closely on Wednesday's discussion of the relations of the state to higher education.

that during the entire period of Dutch ascendancy in the New Netherlands, the common school and the cause of popular education received constant favor. The first effect of English supremacy was to diminish the interest in popular education. The English did, however, establish Columbia college, then known as King's college, and out of it have proceeded, as matter of fact, many of the most powerful influences that have resulted in the public school system of the state. This development is in accordance with the usual historic fact. The higher education has not been evolved from below. It has ordinarily existed first, and has been the chief factor in developing the elementary and secondary schools. Naturally, this does not mean that a man can become a philosopher, or learned in any department of knowledge, without first learning the elementary branches which equip him for advanced study. It simply means that historically universities are older than all schemes of public education, and that out of the universities have come most of the men whose influence has been effective to establish great systems of popular education. I am not striving to claim for universities more than is their due. I understand very well that many university men have been hostile to public education, though few, if any, in this country. I also know that the common schools of every country have found as earnest and as able friends in the ranks of those who have not been trained at universities as among those who have. I contend only, because I believe profoundly, that elementary and secondary education, as systems which have been made available to great masses of men, have followed the dissemination of light that has proceeded from the universities as light shines from the stars in the wide arch of heaven. It is the stars that have made the light, not the light that makes the stars. The importance of this fact can be readily understood. If systems of education grow from the bottom up, they may be right who contend that at a certain point the interest of the state in education may be arbitrarily closed. But if, as it seems to me history makes clear, the system of the lower education has followed upon and springs from the higher, then it is equally clear that any state that desires its work in elementary education to remain healthy and efficient, must be not less careful to promote and encourage education in all its higher develop-

ments than it is to do so at the bottom. You have all heard the story of St Denis, how he is reputed to have taken his head under his arm, after his head had been cut off, and to have carried it for two miles, laying it down finally upon the site of the church of St Denis, in which the sovereigns of France were buried for so many years. Ninon de L'Enclos was asked whether she believed such a thing to be possible. Her reply has passed into a proverb: "It is only the first step which counts." If in a human body the head were to be removed as a costly ornament, because it takes as much food to support one head as to animate two feet, the result would be to render the feet and all the other members useless. The same result would follow with absolute certainty in a system of popular education. It is altogether delusive to imagine that the interest of the state can be confined to the lower members because they are more numerously patronized.

Jefferson, you remember, urged upon the state of Virginia a complete system of public education, at the top of which there was to be a university of the state, at the bottom a net-work of common schools supported by hundreds to bring them as close as possible to the great body of the people, while between the two there was to be a series of secondary schools or academies, which would make the connecting link between the elementary school work and the higher education. Something was done at both ends of the line. The University of Virginia was established and some common schools, but the intermediate schools the state declined to establish. It is significant that the elementary schools suffered more by this omission than did the university. The University of Virginia, despite this drawback, even before the war won and maintained an honorable place among the institutions of higher education in the country; but the common school system of Virginia was able to win no commendation from anybody. This historic experience justifies the claim that it is impossible long to maintain an elementary school system worth having, which does not open out into a system of secondary schools; and it is equally impossible to keep a system of secondary schools valuable, for any long period, if they, in turn, do not open out into the colleges and universities. The uplift of the higher upon the lower is one of the most essential truths bearing upon education.



This, however, is only half of the truth. While it is true, as I have tried to show, that a system of education is like a pyramid, which, all the way down, should take its shape and its proportions from the corner stone at the apex, it must be admitted, nevertheless, that it is a great piece of folly to try to stand a pyramid on its point. I have very great sympathy with those who emphasize the cause of the elementary schools. It is a shameful thing in a free community when the facilities for elementary education are not entirely adequate for the public needs. It is certainly true that the great masses of the children of the commonwealth leave school at the age of 14 or earlier, and that these children must get their opportunities for education within that interval or they will go into the world ignorant. It is also true that the system of education which is inadequate at the bottom, will reflect its insecurity all the way to the top. But this does not mean that at any higher point the pyramid is too large; it means decisively and only that the foundation is too small. The remedy is not to be found by diminishing the contributions of the state for secondary and higher education; it is distinctly to be found in enlarging the contributions for the lower. With every such movement I am in the heartiest sympathy. When it was my privilege to come into close touch with the public school system of Brooklyn, as the mayor of the city, my eye was caught immediately by the palpable fact that several thousand seats, taking the city as a whole, were vacant in the grammar schools, while children were being turned away from the primary schools by the thousand. Just at this time a proposition was made to erect a new high school in the city at the cost of \$100,000 or \$120,000; and I took the ground that until the primary need was fully met the city could not afford to spend its money for a new high-school building, however much such a building was immediately needed. What was the consequence? The consequence was that in every grammar school in the city the bright students who ought to have been graduated into the high schools were held back in their classes, and the flow of children through the whole public school system was choked at the outlet. A few hundred boys and girls, who were able and willing to profit by high school courses, were made the unconscious instruments of preventing promotion all the way down, so

that, at the bottom, thousands of children were deprived of all school privileges because the system had ceased to enjoy the use of its proper outlet at the top. One year taught me the lesson, and the next year an appropriation was made for a new high-school building. The effect was instantaneous. The proper working of the system was restored immediately, and the accommodations at the bottom were at once greatly increased. Nor was this all. The attention which was called to the subject resulted in an interest, the impulse of which has not ceased to be felt in Brooklyn from that day to this. Since then still another high-school building has been erected in the city; that one has been greatly enlarged, and seats have been added by the tens of thousands to the primary school accommodations afforded by the city. It may indeed be claimed that the principals of the grammar schools who failed to turn out into the world the boys and girls who could not be accepted in the high school for lack of room failed in their duty. Possibly they did; but the personal equation is a factor which can not be eliminated in the discussion of public policies. If men will not do a thing, it is idle to project a system whose success depends wholly upon their doing that very thing. The attempt to limit education by the state to elementary work would shatter itself on that rock if it avoided every other. You can not bring bright boys and girls into close personal contact with human teachers without finding the teachers straining every nerve to secure for their bright scholars the privileges of the best possible education.

The question, therefore, as to the point at which the public support of education should be withheld, appears to me to be not a question of principle, but simply and purely a question of expediency. It is well known, as I have said, that Jefferson, the father of American democracy, urged with all his influence the creation of a university to be supported by the state of Virginia. It is perfectly clear also that the western states of our union, almost without exception, are developing upon this model. If it were true that education profits only the individual who has it, there might be some force in the objection that unless individuals can obtain the higher education for themselves it is no concern of the state. But it has long ago been pointed out that a well educated man or woman is of more value to the state than to himself. No one has

expressed this thought more forcibly than did Horatio Seymour in an address at Utica in 1878. Mr Seymour said, "There is no just view of education which does not take into account its diffusive nature. But it may be said, if all this is true, it is still best to leave higher education to private support. It will always get great aid from that source, but if it depends upon that alone only a class can enjoy it. It would leave a wide gap between the schools for all and the schools for a few. It would shut out many of the best and brightest minds and their loss would be a public loss. It would break up the unity of our system, its broad scope, and the sympathies which should run through and permeate the whole." Placing this utterance by Gov. Seymour side by side with the well known views of Thomas Jefferson, one is entitled to say, I think, that it is a spurious democracy which objects to the public maintaining schools for instruction of even the highest order, if general conditions make it desirable. It may indeed be a question of expediency whether, under given conditions, it is necessary for the state to make large expenditures for colleges and universities. The endowments of the past, or other circumstances, may relieve the state of this obligation; but unless so relieved the duty of the state is clear.

It is perfectly true that the foundations of a state rest upon the multitude, and are secure in proportion to their intelligence and integrity; but the progress of a state depends upon quite other conditions. Mankind, from the beginning, has been carried forward in the march of civilization by its great thinkers. When von Helmholtz was in New York the other day, Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the telephone, came all the way from Halifax to meet him in order to say to him that the invention of the telephone rested absolutely upon and was suggested by the discoveries of von Helmholtz in relation to the laws of sound. Now von Helmholtz has passed his whole life in a university. His discoveries as to the laws of sound form only one of his many contributions to the advancement of science and the amelioration of the conditions affecting human life. Our country has been privileged to occupy among nations the happy place of a people destined to demonstrate the encouraging and fruitful truth that the born rulers of mankind are not often cradled in king's palaces. When Abraham Lincoln had lived and died, it

was demonstrated beyond peradventure that out of the humblest places of the land might come powers which would command the reverent awe of mankind. If this be true in the domain of statesmanship, why is it less true in the domain of intellectual achievement? It is only necessary to make the pathway from poverty to the university as free and clear to the child of necessity as the pathway to the presidency has been made, in order to secure for mankind from sources too often neglected services equally conspicuous in the region of higher thought. It has been well said that streams which are to fructify the plains, if they are to carry far, must rise high up among the mountains. The figure is literally applicable to the educational world. Popular education will be at the highest level through the entire mass of the community where the highest education of all commands the most respect and the best support. It was the thinking bayonet that was victorious in the Franco-Prussian war; but behind the thinking bayonet were the splendid universities of Germany, out of which had come the men to organize and make effective the system of popular education that lifted Germany out of the gloom of Jena into the glory of Sedan.

I have discussed the question in this spirit thus far, hoping to make it clear that the high school is not to be thought of as a thing by itself but chiefly as one stage in the process that begins with the kindergarten and ends with the university. As regards the individual, the process may be interrupted, it is true, at any point, without destroying the benefits which those who have pursued it may have received up to that point. Nevertheless, to estimate properly the value of any kind of school one must consider it in its relations to the rest of the system. I have been surprised, therefore, to learn that in the early days of the Albany high school there was, first of all, great opposition to its establishment, and afterwards a determined effort to destroy it. A true understanding of the situation at that time I suppose it would be difficult for one not resident in Albany to acquire.

But the opposition reflected, in part, I judge, the fact that Albany already had an endowed academy, that justly enjoyed a high reputation; and, in part, the abstract objection of some to the use of public money for education beyond the elementary grades. It is one of the most gratifying elements of the situation

that exists to-day that, after 25 years of successful work on the part of the public high school, the old Albany academy is as strong as ever, if not indeed stronger, as having constantly advanced its standards in the intervening years. It thus appears that the effect of the establishment of the Albany high school has been to afford educational opportunities such as the high school offers to many hundreds of the children of Albany, both boys and girls, who otherwise would not have enjoyed those privileges. It is altogether probable that this is only a partial statement of the direct advantage which the people of Albany have had from their high school. Many of those who have completed the course in the high school have been able to continue their studies in college and have thus obtained a more complete education than otherwise they could have enjoyed. The history of the Albany high school makes it clear that those who favored its establishment 25 years ago were right. It has served a purpose which has made it worth to the city many times what it has cost the taxpayers. This gathering is itself an evidence of the esteem in which it is now held. That this community is not singular in its willingness to support public high schools is well shown by the forthcoming report for the year 1890-91 of the United States commissioner of education, Dr William T. Harris, who has kindly placed in my hands advance sheets of the report. There were in the country at large two years ago more than 2700 public high schools, containing in all upwards of 210,000 students. At the same time there were more than 1700 private schools of similar grade containing upwards of 98,000 students. It thus appears that in the United States two thirds of those who are receiving education of this grade are receiving it at the expense of the public. These figures seem to me to demonstrate Horatio Seymour's claim, even as to education of the grade of the high school, that if it is to be anything more than the education of a class, it must be given very largely by the public. I think the figures also demonstrate that, under the free conditions of our American society, private schools will continue to do as much of this work as they can do advantageously, thus relieving the public to that extent of a financial burden which would otherwise come upon the taxpayers. It is safe to conclude also, I think, that a policy which thus commends itself to the great body

of the people in all our states and which they consistently pursue year after year, is a policy which has justified itself according to the common judgment of our countrymen. It is safe to assume, therefore, that the high school is a fixed fact in American education; and it is equally safe to assume, I take it, that the state of New York will develop and improve its high schools rather than assume for a moment an attitude which seems to call that policy into question. I repeat again what I have already said, that I sympathize completely with those who urge the importance of enlarging our public school system at the base, but that is not to be successfully accomplished, in my opinion, by attacking the high schools. It is rather to be done by united efforts on the part of all educators in the state to compel localities and the state itself to do their full duty in relation to the elementary schools.

The report of Commissioner Harris contains many other figures that are of interest to educators, some of which it may be worthwhile to reproduce at this time. Of the total numbers in the two classes of schools 25,000 students in the public high schools were preparing for college, and 20,000 in the private schools. It thus is made clear that more than half of the students who are able to profit by a college education, the country over, acquire the preliminary education for that purpose in the public high schools. This is a fact of no little importance. It shows that the work in higher education, carried on by public and private resources alike, is substantially dependent for students upon the public support which is given to the high-school system. This consideration gives point to another reflection springing out of relations of the high school to our entire system of education. I think I have heard it said, in a general way, that the high school is, in a certain sense, the people's college. The claim is certainly made that because so small a percentage of its students afterwards go through college it is not therefore necessary for the high school to maintain courses which lead to college. This proposition seems to me, in its way, to be as far from the true ideal of an educational system as the other which I have been trying to combat, that because the majority of students leave school at the age of 14, or earlier, therefore it is unbecoming on the part of the public to main-



tain schools for any work beyond the elementary grade. I take it that the best school work is always done under conditions that lead somewhere. I am by no means intending to say that the only profitable course of study in a high school is such a course as leads up to the old-fashioned college curriculum. I understand all the perplexity that has come into the educational world by the multiplication of subjects of which an educated man is expected to know something. I perceive clearly, for we feel the full force of it in our college, as you do in the high school, the immense pressure from natural science and the modern languages in these days for an adequate place in the curriculum. Neither am I one of those who regret this pressure, although I will yield to no one in my estimate of the value both of Greek and Latin as a part of the equipment of a highly educated man. I do not at all find fault with the high school, therefore, because it yields to the popular demand to give something of a more general education than the equipment for college, as it must be carried on at present, will afford. I wish simply to protest against every tendency in the high schools to abandon the course leading up to college, because of the necessity of maintaining courses of a different character. Believe me, the high school will suffer by breaking the connection with the college, as seriously as the elementary schools would suffer if the high schools were to be suppressed. What I do believe is, that the colleges, in their turn, should take into consideration the conditions affecting the high schools, and make it possible for students from all the courses in the high schools to pass into some profitable course in the college. There ought to be as perfect articulation between the high school and the college as between the grammar school and the high school. In bringing about this more perfect relation, neither the high school nor the college should forget the embarrassment that surrounds any change on the part of the other. If it be true that the high schools are subject to a popular pressure urging them to break entirely with the old classical education, so it is also true that the colleges are bound by tradition to emphasize the value of the old learning, and to point out the splendid results it has achieved as the principal instrument of the higher education for hundreds of years. It may indeed be claimed that other subjects will furnish as useful a mental disci-



pline and produce as effective men as the old-fashioned curriculum. But this remains to be proved. It can not be successfully maintained, on the other hand, that the old curriculum has not justified itself. I count it a matter for general congratulation that the National Educational Association has for two years been moving along a line, destined, as I believe, to produce the most happy results, both as regards the high schools and the colleges. Two years ago, a Committee of Ten was appointed, of which President Eliot, of Harvard, is the chairman, consisting of college presidents, principals of high schools, among them the distinguished principal of the Albany high school, and head masters of private academies, to take into consideration the whole subject of suitable courses of study in secondary schools like the high school and the private academy of similar grade. This Committee of Ten held a preliminary session a year ago, and after several days of conference laid out a program of investigation, which was referred to nine other groups of 10 each, drawn from the teachers of the entire country. The work has been in no respect sectional or one-sided, but it has been carried forward from the beginning, most wisely, with a patient effort to reach a result which will command general assent, not through the force of legislation, but by the no less irresistible power of public opinion. The reports of these groups of 10 have just been considered by the original committee in a session again lasting for several days. I think I violate no confidence in saying that they have prepared four alternate schedules for high-school work, any one of which, or any combination of which, may be properly and advantageously offered by schools of that grade, whether maintained by the public or by private support. If, as I trust they will, these programs when made public commend themselves to the good judgment of educators, they will accomplish two results of the utmost consequence to education in this country. Should they be generally adopted, they will not only define the proper field of the high school, but they will indicate with precision the point at which college work ought to begin all over the country, and it will then become, in my opinion, the duty of the college to conform to that situation in all its bearings. If the high schools will move along the lines thus carefully matured, they can create a force of public opinion which will compel the colleges to fall into line, if indeed there should be the slightest

hesitation on their part to do so. I hardly think there will be any hesitation, however, on the part of the colleges. During the past 25 years, as I read the progress of events, the whole educational system of this country has been in a state of chaos, owing to the play upon old conditions of two forces, both of which began to exert a powerful influence in the United States about a quarter of a century ago. One of these forces I have already referred to. It is the determined pressure of public opinion behind the natural sciences and the modern languages to secure for them more weight in the educational scheme of the country at large. It is this, I think, more than any other single influence, which has brought about the elective system to so great an extent in our colleges, and which has produced the many courses in the high schools which do not lead to the college. A lad can not learn more than so much in a given time, and with the introduction of so many new subjects, as matters deserving of serious attention, it has been impossible to meet the situation except by the elective system. As in the case of every other radical departure from old methods, it takes time to make clear to what extent the new movement can profitably be carried, and at what point that movement itself begins to work harm. The effort of the National Education Association, to which I have just referred, to examine this question closely as it affects the high schools, is an evidence of the widespread feeling that the time has come in this country when precisely that inquiry ought to be made. But the high school is not the only part of the educational system which has been in a chaotic state. Formerly, the college, which aimed to give a liberal education, was the top of the educational system in this country. Accordingly, a very natural tendency was felt to raise the requirements for admission to college, and generally to increase its demands upon the students. So long as the college was recognizably at the top of our educational system, these efforts could claim to have, and did have, the merit of raising the educational level in the United States to a higher point. But almost simultaneously with the culmination of the pressure from natural science and the modern languages upon the curriculum, the university, as a school for specialization and advanced work, began to find a home in this country. This is the second influence to which I referred as tending to produce a

chaotic condition in our educational world. Formerly, our colleges awakened in their best students scholarly aspirations which they could not satisfy. These students in large numbers went to Europe to pursue their advanced studies there. Many of them studied in Germany, and became aware of the immense influence of the German universities in carrying science forward in all departments of human learning. These students, on returning to their own country, endeavored to introduce at home the methods of study in vogue in Germany; and began to demand the creation here of facilities for study which should compare not unfavorably with those to be found abroad. Perhaps the most notable response to this demand, speaking from the point of view of indirect, as well as of direct influence, was the founding of the Johns Hopkins university and its development along the lines which have given it so great a name among our educational institutions. Every one of the older and stronger colleges has modified its relations to educational work, in corresponding ways, with the result that, at several points in the country, the conception of a genuine university for the encouragement of original research, among other things, as distinguished from the American college of liberal culture, is beginning to materialize. As a consequence, the college is no longer at the top of the educational system in America, but it occupies a place between the high school and the university proper. Precisely what the field of the college ought now to be is as much undetermined as the proper field of the high school has been. I am inclined to believe, however, that the work of this Committee of Ten, appointed by the National Education Association, is likely to be as far-reaching in reference to the determination of this question as in its effect upon the high schools themselves. If the proper point of beginning for the college can be determined, it is not especially difficult to determine the point at which its work ought to end. Therefore, I would urge upon educators the importance of giving practical effect to the results reached by this Committee of Ten, no less earnestly in the interest of the higher education than in the interest of the secondary education. It seems to me the same law can be laid down as applicable to colleges which I have been emphasizing with reference to high schools. While it is true that a great majority of the graduates of colleges do not continue their studies through the university, the college is not

therefore, at liberty to look upon itself as a school which is not called upon to give special preparation for advanced work. The truth is that every school must organize its work with reference to both these facts; that the work which they are doing is for many the highest educational privilege which they will enjoy, while for others it is simply a pathway by which they reach a higher stage of intellectual development. All the way down, the work which the schools do for the less favored students will be better done because the schools are in living touch with the entire educational system both above and below them. This is precisely as true of the colleges in their relation to the universities, as it is true of the high schools in their relation to the colleges.

Another most important consequence follows from the correct relation of the various schools in the educational system in these particulars. While it is true that many scholars have no option, and are obliged to close their education in school at an early age, it is also true that the number is very large whose destiny is determined, more or less, by circumstance. If circumstances make it hard for them to go to college they will not go. If circumstances favor they are likely to go. I think it is not necessary in an American community seriously to argue the question whether it is desirable to have men and women enjoy a college education in large numbers or not. The tendency of every age is to magnify itself, and it is easy to forget our obligations to the past. Nevertheless, the civilization of our day has its roots in the past as surely as the oak tree is rooted in the ground. It ought to be one main effect of a college education, and I think it generally is, to make those who have enjoyed it more conscious than they otherwise would be of this dependence of the present upon all that has gone before. It gives a sense of perspective, so that the college man looks upon the present as he sees it against the background of the past, making him, if he be wise, at once more conservative and more progressive. I was asked not long ago to write a paper on the subject, "Why a young man should go to college." I replied that the subject ought to be "Why should a young man not go to college?" A college education stands before my mind as one of the greatest privileges open to American youth. Some contend, I know that a college education is of no value in a business career. Having myself been a merchant, I should think more

meanly of a business career than I do if it really were true that to enlarge the mind incapacitates a man to prosper in a mercantile life. No one contends, I think, that a college education does not tend to broaden and enlarge the mind. It is therefore apt to lead to a large and interesting career. One has only to consider the large proportion of college-bred men among those holding conspicuous public positions, as compared with the small number of the population who enjoy the privileges of college training, in order to perceive that in the direction of public life, at all events, a college education is of immense advantage. Daniel B. Fayerweather, dying a few years ago, left many millions of dollars to be divided among the colleges and universities of the country. It is reported upon good authority that he said to one of those whom he counseled with in regard to the details of his bequests, that he had grown up in Connecticut as a boy among other boys no better off than himself. "Almost every one of those boys," he said, "who has enjoyed the privileges of a college education, has amounted to something, and has become a man of mark." "I have made money," Mr Fayerweather went on to say, "but nobody has ever heard of me. I propose to use my money in such a way as to make it possible for other boys to enjoy the college privileges which I myself did not have." I trust it will not appear to this audience that I am saying five words for the high school and 10 for the college. In all that I have said I have been really thinking of the high school, wishing to urge upon those who are still its students, so far as it may be possible, to pursue their studies in the high school along the path which will lead them further on into the fields of knowledge. This is a kindness to them, and it is equally a kindness to the teachers of the high school. All work is better done which can be tested by some standard, and not the least of the services which the college renders to the high school lies in the fact that at the doors of the college the work of the high school is brought to a test.

Fellow citizens, you are celebrating to-day with appropriate rejoicing, a quarter of a century of earnest, faithful work. The school which entered upon its career 25 years ago in an atmosphere of doubt and agitation looks out to-day upon smiling faces as it points with pride and gratitude to those who have been educated within its walls. The work of the teacher is in that respect most

blessed. He is every day giving himself to others and he lives again in every triumph of his pupils. I wish I could make all who hear me feel what honor is due to those who teach. I often recall with amazement the tact and patience of those who do the primary work, welcoming every ray of intelligence as one who is fond of plants welcomes the first leaf. But there is no stage in the whole long process which does not put every power to the test, and make the successful teacher at once the happiest and the most useful of mortals. We have honor for those who shine in conspicuous public station. We ought to have no less honor for those who labor as teachers, often in the midst of utmost discouragement, to make the boy able to become the full and effective man.

Mr Principal and teachers of the Albany high school, I congratulate you, you and the teachers of other days, upon the well-merited recognition your work has received in the rejoicings of this hour. All who value a sound education share in your happiness, and wish for you long continued and increasing success. I congratulate those whose firm faith and zealous labors have given this school its opportunity, and I congratulate the city of Albany upon a high school of which any city might be proud.

## **ATTENDANTS**

AT

### **31st University Convocation of the State of New York**

---

#### **Officers of the University**

*Ex officio* permanent officers of the Convocation

ANSON J. UPSON, Chancellor

WILLIAM CROSWELL DOANE, Vice-Chancellor

MELVIL DEWEY, Secretary

#### **Convocation council**

PROF. H. S. WHITE, Cornell university

PROF. F. H. STODDARD, University of the City of New York

PRIN. J. C. NORRIS, Canandaigua academy

PRIN. J. M. DOLPH, Port Jervis union school

SUP'T SHERMAN WILLIAMS, Glens Falls

#### **Regents of the University**

Anson J. Upson (1), *Chancellor*; William Croswell Doane (2), *Vice-chancellor*; Roswell P. Flower (3), *Governor*; Charles E. Fitch (4); Hamilton Harris (5); T. Guilford Smith (6); Francis McNeirny (7).

#### **University departments**

**Regents office, including Extension dep't.** Melvil Dewey (8), *secretary*; Asa O. Gallup (9), *chief clerk*; Charles F. Wheelock (10), Myron T. Scudder (11), *inspectors*; J. H. Gibson (12), *inspector of apparatus*; Myrtilla Avery (13), *extension assistant*; Grace Eastman (14), *printing clerk*; E. Maud Sands (15), *report clerk*; Alice G. Turner (16), *bookkeeper*; Henry I. Knickerbocker (17), *clerk*; Frank T. Boland (18), E. L. Hanes (19), Julia Z. Mahoney (20), *stenographers*; Martha L. Phelps (21), Fred M. Baker (22), Herbert J. Hamilton (23), Lena S. VanDerlip (24), *junior clerks*; George B. Graves (25), James J. Nolan (26), *pages*.



**Examination department.** James Russell Parsons, jr (27), *director*; Joseph W. Ellis (28), Charles N. Cobb (29), *examiners in science*; Verlista Shaul (30), *examiner in languages*; Annie T. Keyser (31), *examiner in Greek*; Dora N. Taylor (32), *examiner and director's assistant*; Adèle B. Alexander (33), *record clerk*; Isabel Lamont (34), *assistant record clerk*; Mrs Ida G. McMillan (35), *credential clerk*; Katharine L. McDonough (36), *medical record clerk*; Minnie L. Vanderzee (37), *stenographer*; Katharine H. Chapman (38), Mary E. Keyes (39), Mary A. O'Connor (40), Mrs Mary F. Passenger (41), Harriett B. Kennedy (42), Minnie L. O'Neill (43), Mary F. Ray (44), Katherine I. Smith (45), Agnes H. O'Neill (46), Inez M. Schwartz (47), Lulu M. Hyland (48), Carrie M. Thompson (49), Emma J. Wensley (50), *sub-examiners*; Mary S. Russell (51), *clerk*; Grace D. Allen (52), Elizabeth G. Fealey (53), Alice C. McCormack (54), Elizabeth A. McDermott (55), Lottie A. Wemple (56), Anna M. Weis (57), Ella R. McDowell (58), Katharine L. Cassidy (59), Minnie Ronan (60), Julia Ryan (61), Amy Cohen (62), *junior clerks*.

**State library.** S. B. Griswold (63), *law librarian*; George R. Howell (64), *archivist*; D. V. R. Johnston (65), *reference librarian*; Harry E. Griswold (66), *sub-librarian (Law)*; W. B. Shaw (67), *sub-librarian (Legislation)*; May Seymour (68), *sub-librarian (Education)*; Mary L. Sutliff (69), *shelf-lister*; Florence Woodworth (70), *director's assistant*; Elizabeth Harvey (71), *cataloger*; C: W: Plympton (72), *accession clerk*; Ada Bunnell (73), *classifier*; Martha T. Wheeler (74), *indexer*; J. T. Jennings (75), *shelf curator*; H. Alfarata Chapman (76), *stenographer*; Lily A. Walker (77), *loan clerk*; Mary C. O'Brien (78), Dora Schlesinger (79), Mary A. Murphy (80), Minnie Sennett (81), Ellen F. Sands (82), *junior clerks*; Gerald Griffin (83), *page*.

**Public Libraries department.** W: R. Eastman (84), *inspector*; Michael J. Driscoll (85), *page*.

**State museum.** James Hall (86), *state geologist and paleontologist*; Frederick J. H. Merrill (87), *assistant director*; J. M. Clarke (88), *assistant state geologist*; J. A. Lintner (89), *state entomologist*.

## INSTITUTIONS IN THE UNIVERSITY

## Colleges for men

**Columbia college.** Charles T. Terry (90).

**Union university.** Pres. Harrison E. Webster (91). Professors Maurice Perkins (92), C. P. Linhart (93).

**Hamilton college.** Pres. M. W. Stryker (94).

**Hobart college.** Pres. E. N. Potter (95).

**University of the City of New York.** Professors Francis H. Stoddard (96), Isaac Franklin Russell (97).

**Colgate university.** Professors W. H. Crawshaw (98), Charles Herbert Thurber (99).

**St Stephen's college.** Warden R. B. Fairbairn (100).

**Manhattan college.** Brother Chrysostom (101).

## Colleges for women

**Vassar college.** Pres. James M. Taylor (102); Professors A. M. Ely (103), Lucy M. Salmon (104).

**Rutgers female college.** Prof. Daniel S. Martin (105).

**Barnard college.** Ella Weed (106), *trustee*; Emily L. Gregory (107), *lecturer*.

## Colleges for men and women

**Alfred university.** Pres. Arthur E. Main (108); Professors Alpheus B. Kenyon (109), Edward M. Tomlinson (110).

**Cornell university.** Pres. J. G. Schurman (111); Dean H. S. White (112); Professors J. M. Hart (113), J. W. Jenks (114), J. E. Oliver (115), Charles A. Collin (116).

**Syracuse university.** Prof. W. P. Coddington (117).

## Schools of law

**Albany law school.** J. Newton Fiero (118).

## Schools of medicine

**Albany medical college.** Willis G. Tucker (119), *registrar*; Prof. F. C. Curtis (120).

**Eclectic medical college.** Dean G. W. Boskowitz (121), W. R. Spooner (122), *trustee*.

**University of Buffalo, Medical dep't.** Sec. John Parmenter (123).

**Schools of pedagogy**

**New York state normal college.** Prof. Albert N. Husted (124); Mary A. McClelland (125); Anna E. Pierce (126); Edith Bodley (127).

**Teachers college** (N. Y. city). Prof. John F. Woodhull (128).

**Other**

**Dudley observatory.** Director Lewis Boss (129).

**Library school.** Walter G. Forsyth (130); Irene Gibson (131); Helen G. Sheldon (132).

**Academies**

**Academy of the Sacred Heart** (Syracuse). Prin. Rev. J. F. Mullany (133).

**Adams collegiate institute.** Prin. O. B. Rhodes (134).

**Albany academy.** Maurice E. Viele (135), *trustee*.

**Albany female academy.** Anna Anderson (136).

**Albany high school.** Sup't Charles W. Cole (137); *teachers*, W. D. Goewey (138), J. H. Gilbert (139), Austin Sanford (140), Carl A. Meyer (141), Agnes R. Davison (142), Anna M. Halpen (143), Mary Morgan (144).

**Albany public schools.** Principals, J. L. Bothwell (145), Levi Cass (146), L. H. Rockwell (147); *teachers*, Nellie A. Fealey (148), Frances A. Gilborne (149).

**Amsterdam academy.** Prin. C. C. Wetsell (150).

**Amsterdam union school, no. 8.** Sup't J. W. Kimball (151).

**Amsterdam union school, no. 11.** Sup't J. G. Serviss (152).

**Auburn high school.** Prin. W. P. Thomson (153).

**Batavia union school.** Sup't John Kennedy (154).

**Bath-on-the-Hudson union school.** Prin. G. H. Quay (155); *trustees*, A. J. Hutchinson jr (156), A. E. Roberts (157); *teacher*, Emily Ashton (158).

**Canajoharie union school.** Prin. S. McK. Smith (159); *teachers*, Emma P. Abell (160), M. Therese Sterling (161).

**Canandaigua academy.** Prin. J. C. Norris (162).

**Canastota union school.** Prin. G. H. Ottoway (163).

**Cascadilla school.** Ex-Prin. James E. Russell (164).

**Cathedral academy.** Sisters M. Gertrude (165), C. Bussino (166).

**Cathedral school of St Paul.** Head Master F: L. Gamage (167).

**Catskill free academy.** Sup't E. S. Harris (168); Prin. Mabel Doolittle (169); *teacher*, Helen O'Brien (170).

**Cazenovia seminary.** Prin. I. N. Clements (171).

**Christian brothers academy.** Rev. F. A. Ryan (172); Brother Doritheus (173).

**Claverack academy.** Prin. A. H. Flack (174).

**Clinton liberal institute.** Charles A. Merrill (175).

**Clinton union school.** Prin. W. S. Knowlson (176).

**Cobleskill union school.** Prin. W. H. Ryan (177).

**Cook academy.** Prin. A. C. Hill (178).

**Cooperstown union school.** Prin. Strong Comstock (179).

**De La Salle institute.** Brother Azarias (180).

**Delaware academy.** Prin. W. D. Graves (181); Preceptress Elizabeth M. Graves (182).

**Delaware literary institute.** Prin. C. H. Verrill (183).

**Flushing public schools.** Sup't E. H. Cook (185).

**Fort Edward union school.** Ex-Prin. T. S. Vickerman (186); Prin. F. D. Russell (187).

**Glens Falls academy.** Prin. D. C. Farr (188); Margaret A. Emerson (189).

**Glens Falls public schools.** Sup't Sherman Williams (190); *teachers*, Alice Bake (191); Gertrude Goulding (192).

**Gloversville public schools.** Sup't J. A. Estee (193).

**Greenwich union school.** Prin. C. L. Morey (194).

**Hogansburg academy.** Vice-Prin. M. Gabrielle Lahey (195); M. Ignatius O'Brien (196).

**Hornell free academy.** *Teachers*, Mary F. De Voll (197); May R. Fitzpatrick (198).

**Hornellsville public schools.** Sup't W. R. Prentice (199).

**Houghton seminary.** Prin. A. G. Benedict (200).

- Hudson high school. Prin. F. J. Sagendorph (201).  
Jordan free academy. Prin. J. W. Chandler (202).  
Kingston free academy. Prin. H. W. Callahan (203).  
Lansingburg academy. Prin. C. T. R. Smith (204).  
Lansingburg union school. Sup't G. F. Sawyer (205).  
Liberty union school. Prin. A. W. Abrams (206).  
Little Falls union school. Prin. Marcellus Oakey (207); Mary E. Vaughn (208).  
Liverpool union school. Prin. W. S. Murray (209).  
Lowville academy. Prin. L. E. Rowley (210).  
Mechanicville union school. Prin. L. B. Blakeman (211).  
Mexico academy. Prin. F. B. Severance (212).  
Middleburg union school. Prin. Roland S. Keyser (213).  
Munro collegiate institute. Prin. C. S. Palmer (214); *trustee*, T. K. Wright (215).  
New Hartford union school. Prin. A. M. Scripture (216).  
New Rochelle public schools. Sup't I. E. Young (217).  
Niagara Falls union school. Sup't N. L. Benham (218); Prin. R. A. Tayler (219).  
North Cohocton union school. Prin. M. C. Plough (220).  
Nyack public schools. Sup't I. H. Lawton (221).  
Ogdensburg free academy. Prin. Fred Van Dusen (222).  
Oneonta union school. Sup't N. N. Bull (223).  
Oswego high school. Prin. C. W. Richards (224).  
Ovid union school. Prin. L. H. Clark, jr (225).  
Owego free academy. Prin. E. J. Peck (226).  
Phoenix union school. Prin. A. W. Dyke (227).  
Port Jervis union school. Sup't J. M. Dolph (228).  
Rome public schools. Sup't M. J. Michael (229).  
St Patrick's academy. Prin. W. J. Finneran (230).  
St Peter's academy. Prin. Sister M. Odilia (231); Sisters Antonia (232), Sacred Heart (233).  
Sandy Creek high school. Prin. W. C. Tifft (235).

**Saratoga Springs union school.** Sup't T. R. Kneil (236); Annie M. Spence (237).

**Sauquoit academy.** Prin. B. F. Miller (238); Emma P. Miller (239).

**Seymour Smith academy.** Prin. Abraham Mattice (240).

**Sodus academy.** Prin. L. H. Clark (241).

**S. S. Seward institute.** Prin. A. J. Clough (242).

**Stillwater union school.** Prin. W. U. Hinman (243).

**Suspension Bridge union school.** Prin. T. B. Lovell (244).

**Syracuse high school.** Prin. W. K. Wickes (245); Prof. W. A. Brownell (246).

**Tarrytown union school.** Prin. G. E. Atwood (247).

**Temple Grove seminary.** Pres. C. F. Dowd (248).

**Troy academy.** Prin. F. C. Barnes (249).

**Troy public schools.** Sup't E. E. Ashley (250); May L. McKanna (251).

**Utica catholic academy.** Prin. J. S. M. Lynch (252).

**Walden union school.** Prin. D. C. Dominick (253).

**Walton union school.** Prin. J. R. Fairgrieve (254).

**Waterford union school.** Sup't Alexander Falconer (255).

**Waterloo union school.** Prin. T. C. Wilber (256); Adelbert Hamilton (257).

#### INSTITUTIONS OUTSIDE THE UNIVERSITY

##### Universities and colleges

**Indiana university.** Joseph Swain (Indiana university) (259).

**Trinity college (North Carolina).** Pres. John F. Crowell (260).

**University of Wisconsin.** Richard T. Ely (Columbia) (261).

**Western Reserve university.** Pres. Charles F. Thwing (Harvard) (262).

##### Normal schools

**Cortland normal school.** Prin. Francis J. Cheney (Middlebury college), (263).

**Oneonta normal school.** P. I. Bugbee (264); Alice G. Bothwell (Wellesley) (265).

**Plattsburg normal school.** Prin. E. N. Jones (Hamilton) (266).

### Academies

**Colby academy.** Head Teacher La Roy F. Griffin (Brown university) (267).

**McDonogh school.** Prin. J. T. Edwards (Wesleyan university) (268).

**New York preparatory school.** Prin. Warren W. Smith (Yale) (269).

**Rutgers preparatory school.** Head Master E. R. Payson (Hamilton) (270).

**St Agnes school.** Ellen W. Boyd (271), *principal*.

**St Patrick's school.** Prin. Sister M. Laurentine (272).

**Vermont episcopal institute.** W. J. Snyder (Hobart) (273).

### High schools

**Brooklyn boys high school.** Prof. C. H. J. Douglas (Columbia) (274).

**Worcester English high school.** Mary Trumbull (275).

### Elementary schools

**Bridgeport (Conn.) public schools.** Sup't Eugene Bouton (Yale) (276).

**Cleveland public schools.** Sup't Andrew S. Draper (277).

**East Albany public school.** Minnie Bates (277a).

**Elba district school.** Prin. H. H. Snell (277b).

**School for girls (Albany).** Prin. Sarah E. Curry (Oswego normal school) (278).

### OTHER VISITORS

C: W: Bardeen (Yale) (279), Syracuse.

F. W. Barthel (Williams) (280), West Troy.

G. H. Beattys (281), New York.

J. H. Berns (282), Cohoes.

H. M. Briggs (283), Lansingburg.

Eugene Burlingame (284), Albany.

Frank Chamberlain (285), Albany.

Mary C. Chamberlain (286), Albany.

Emma Champenoi (287), Albany.

H. W. Childs (288), Syracuse.



- C: B. Cole (289), New York.  
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 O. P. Conant (Dartmouth) (291), New York.  
 Caroline Corson (292), Cape May, Seaville.  
 Peter Cowell (293), *public librarian*, Liverpool, England.  
 Elisha Curtiss (Union) (294), *inspector of teachers classes*,  
 Sodus.  
 Lillie B. Davis (295), Washington, D. C.  
 Richard J. Davis (296), Washington, D. C.  
 Charlotte A. Dewey (297), Oneida.  
 H. M. Dewey (298), Oneida.  
 A. S. Downing (Pennsylvania college) (299), *institute con-*  
*ductor*, Palmyra.  
 A. Kennedy Duff (Franklin) (300), Albany.  
 Katherine A. Fealey (301), Albany.  
 Mrs J. Fealey (302), Brooklyn.  
 George Fenton (303), Broadalbin, N. Y.  
 Mrs J. Newton Fiero (304), Albany.  
 Thomas E. Finegan (305), *examination clerk*, Department of  
 public instruction, Albany.  
 H. P. French (Amherst) (306), Albany.  
 T. B. Fulcher (St Stephen's college) (307), Albany.  
 Mae F. Gledhill (309), Albany.  
 W. R. Glen (310), New York.  
 E. B. M. Hanaden (311), Philadelphia.  
 G. M. Heindel (312), Albany.  
 Florence B. Himes (N. Y. State normal college) (313), Albany.  
 Russell Hinman (314), New York.  
 Julia S. Hoag (315), Albany.  
 Arthur Kaiser (Cornell) (316), Buffalo.  
 Amos Kellogg (317), New York.  
 N. G. Kingsley (Albany normal school) (318), Providence.  
 R. I.  
 Leonard Kip (319), Albany.  
 J. P. Lansing (Williams) (320), West Troy.  
 H. W. Mabie (Williams) (321), *editor Outlook*, New York.  
 Grace McCormic (N. Y. State normal college) (322), Albany  
 Mrs F. J. H. Merrill (Columbia) (323), Albany.  
 Margaret F. Morgan (324), Albany.  
 E. E. Packer (325), Albany.

A. D. Perkins (Cornell) (326), Syracuse.  
 J. V. L. Pruyn (327), Albany.  
 Mrs Harriet L. P. Rice (328), Albany.  
 G. L. Richardson (Williams) (329), Albany.  
 H. R. Sanford (330), *institute conductor*, Penn Yan.  
 Max Schlesinger (Leipzig) (331), Albany.  
 Veronica Sheehan (332), Albany.  
 Pemberton Smith (333), Albany.  
 Mrs T. Guilford Smith (334), Buffalo.  
 W. L. Snyder (335), Johnstown, N. Y.  
 Ada H. Steenberg (336), Albany.  
 Walter C. Stewart (337), Santa Clara, N. Y.  
 I. H. Stout (338), *institute conductor*, Geneva.  
 J. L. Thompson (Franklin) (339), Buffalo.  
 Nellie Wade (340), Albany.  
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The following summary shows 54 colleges and professional schools represented by 181 graduates, 107 being from New York institutions:

New York	New York - (Concluded)	Outside New York (Concluded)		
Columbia college	6	Allegheny college	4	1
Union university	9	Oswego normal school	3	1
.Hamilton college	12	Potsdam "	1	1
Hobart college	2			1
University of the City of New York	1	Outside New York		4
Colgate university	3	Bowdoin college	2	1
St John's college (Fordham)	1	Colby university	1	2
University of Rochester	7	Dartmouth college	3	1
St Stephen's college	1	Amherst college	6	1
Manhattan college	1	Boston university	2	1
St Lawrence university	1	Harvard university	3	2
Alfred university	4	Tufts college	1	1
Cornell university	14	Williams college	8	1
Syracuse university	8	Mt Holyoke college	2	1
N. Y. State normal college	17	Smith college	2	1
Vassar college	6	Wellesley college	5	1
Albany medical college	1	Brown university	4	
University of Buffalo, Med. dep't	1	Trinity college	2	
Eclectic medical college	1	Wesleyan university	6	
Rensselaer polytechnic institute	2	Yale university	7	
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# CONVOCAATION ORDINANCES

Established by the Regents of the University

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1 The University Convocation of the State of New York shall be held annually at the capitol in Albany on the first Wednesday, Thursday and Friday after July 4.

2 Its object shall be, by addresses, papers, discussions and resolutions to ascertain and formulate educational opinion; to make such recommendations as experience may suggest; and by the cooperation of all the institutions of the University to advance the cause of academic and higher education.

3 The membership of the convocation shall embrace:

*a* The regents and all officers of any department of the University.

*b* All trustees, instructors and other officers, in colleges, normal schools, academies, high schools and other institutions of the University.

*c* The officers of the New York State Teachers Association.

*d* Such others as may be elected by the regents or by the Convocation council.

4 The officers of the University shall be the permanent officers of the convocation.

5 Each convocation shall choose a council of five to act as its representative during the year, and arrange for and conduct the business of the next annual meeting. The secretaries of the University shall be *ex officio* members and secretaries of this council.

6 The chancellor shall annually appoint a necrology committee to collect notices and report to the next convocation on members or other prominent educators deceased during the year.

7 The proceedings of the convocation, with the papers and discussions, shall be included in the annual report of the regents to the legislature.

# CONVOCAATION RULES

Established by Convocation council

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1 Unless previous notice to the contrary be given, all persons engaged to present papers must be in readiness at the time assigned by the council, in default of which all remaining papers will be entitled to precedence.

2 In case of inability to be present, immediate notice should be given to the secretary to whom the paper may be forwarded for use of convocation.

3 The author of each paper should furnish, in advance, a brief abstract for newspaper reports.

4 All papers read before convocation belong to its proceedings and are to be handed to the secretary.

5 Papers for the full reading of which there may not be time, may, by permission of the council, be read by title and published in the proceedings.



*University of the Sta.*

**Examination Department**

**HIGHER EXAMINATIONS**

to go into operation for academic year 1894

**Purpose.** To incite college graduates as well as those debarred from college privileges to do advanced work by offering official tests and recognition of attainments in studies of college and university grade.

**Field to be covered.** The most prominent college and university studies, others to be added as demand arises, till all branches are included.

**Times and places.** Higher examinations to be held in the Albany offices, within the month preceding each University convocation, and also at the time of academic examinations. To accommodate those unable to come to Albany, examinations will be held in any part of the state where candidates require them, at the times and places of present academic examinations, when higher examinations may be taken under supervision of the regular regents examiner.

**Examiners.** On nomination of the examination committee, the chancellor appoints, from the faculties of the colleges and universities of the state, two eminent scholars as University examiners in each of the following subjects: Philosophy, economics, pedagogy, library science, mathematics, astronomy, physics, chemistry, geology, paleontology, botany, biology, zoology, engineering, architecture, music, ancient history, general modern history, history of the United States, of England, of Germany and of France, and for each of the languages and literatures most studied, viz: English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Latin, Greek and oriental.

Distinct examiners for each distinct subject are appointed, as this more fully recognizes special scholarship, gives a stronger faculty of examiners than to intrust several subjects to one man, and costs little more, since payments are chiefly for question papers made and answers examined.

Term of service is two years.

All official expenses are paid, including attendance on annual University convocations and all meetings to which examiners are summoned by the regents.

No fixed salary is paid at present, but instead there is paid \$10 for each question paper prepared, \$1 for each paper examined, and \$10 a day for other required services.

## THE PLAN OF STUDY.

The plan of study is a course of reading, the study of which will enable the student to pass the examination with a standing of 75 per cent. or better.

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**Fees.** To residents of the state no fees are charged except \$5 for each diploma issued. To non-residents is charged a fee covering only actual extra cost to the state of their examination.

**Eligibility.** Examinations are open to all applicants who hold a regents academic diploma or its equivalent; i. e. to all who have had at least a full three years high-school course as a minimum of preliminary education.

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